

THE JOURNAL

OF THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

OF THE CITY OF CHICAGO

FOR THE YEAR 1911

EDITED BY

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The Clearing House

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

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NOTICE TO WRITERS

We welcome contributions from our readers. In every issue we publish teachers' and administrators' articles reporting improvements, experiments, and successes as achieved in their schools. Many of our readers have accomplished things in classrooms and in school systems that should be known in thousands of other high schools.

Our preferred length for articles is 1,500 to

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WINDMILLS AND COCKROACHES

*A realist looks at
curriculum revision*

By

A. JOHN BARTKY

I HESITATE to address myself to teachers, for teachers are normally idealists, and an administrator who, by virtue of his trade, is forced to become a realist is likely to be misunderstood. The realist tends to be negatively emotionalized by the intensional symbolisms of the idealist, and resists accepting a world of ideas. His I.Q. is too low to be tolerant of too many ideas and to him the idealist is wasting his time jousting with windmills instead of stepping upon cockroaches.

On the other hand, the teacher-idealist sees in the activities of the administrator-realist just so many unrelated trivia which frustrate ideas and block the attainment of worthwhile educational goals. However, despite my hesitancy and justifiable feelings of inferiority, I am driven by a compulsion to advise teachers in the matter of curriculum study. This is written for elementary and high-school teachers and I address myself directly to them.

Within the year, if you wish to be in fashion, you will embark upon a curriculum study program. Such an undertaking is an educational must! Just as a dog needs a flea to remind him he is nothing but a dog, a teacher requires a curriculum study program to keep before him the fact that there are some discomforts associated with

teaching, and to restrain him from idling away every afternoon of the week.

If you are orthodox in your approach, and I hope you all are, you will divide into committees for your curriculum study effort. We must be *democratic* about this thing, and there is nothing more democratic than the committee approach (at least so the education professor informs us). And a committee is presumed to possess a higher intelligence quotient than its members. This, despite the fact that I personally am a bit confused over these assumptions: Hitler employed committees and he did not behave democratically. Also, expecting wisdom to rise from the deliberations of ignorance is too much like pulling a rabbit out of the magician's hat. But we are told that we must have committees if we would go about curriculum revision in a truly cooperative *democratic* fashion.

The first meeting of your committee will not be too inspiring or too successful. You will experience long intervals of silent embarrassment, rudely interrupted with irrelevant suggestions, and your discussion will be marked by only a very few sporadic attempts at making a contribution. The group will be static, not dynamic. Restructuring by adding observers, recorders, and other miscellany will do little or no good

despite the insistence of group dynamic authorities. Two things influence this static condition: No one wishes to extend his neck and have his head removed by a sharp retort. Everyone would like to get home to start dinner or to wait for it, depending upon sex.

But do not let this apparent indifference and failure to progress disturb you. If the committee carries on long enough it will reach an agreement. This will be to adjourn until the next meeting. If the chairman is wise, when this point is reached he will dismiss the group at once, because committees have been known to change their minds even in the case of adjournment.

The second meeting of your committee is usually a discouraging one. By no means may you hope for the same unanimity of final action that characterized the first session. At this meeting, one-third of the group will favor formulating curricular objectives; one-third will suggest defining pupil needs; and one-third will point out the desirability of adjourning. Much time and effort will be conserved if the committee agrees to do all three of these things.

Now just a word or two concerning the formulation of objectives through committee activity. You will discover that individual members of your group can become disturbingly specific in their suggestions. Let me illustrate: Assume your committee is involved in developing objectives for ninth-grade English. Doctor Brown, who has his Ph.D., will feel degraded unless Chaucer is translated; Miss Black will prefer Shakespeare; Miss Gavin will promote the romantic novel to encourage interest in reading; pragmatic Mr. Schwartz will point to the need for learning to draft a satisfactory business letter; Mrs. Krug will demand expository writing; Mr. Peterson will have nothing but oral expression, etc. To accept all the proposed objectives would necessitate extending the ninth grade into the pupils' period of senility. Not to accept all suggestions would be disastrous and, in the

eyes of those whose objectives were rejected, undemocratic.

Superficially, it would appear that your committee is faced with a dilemma that cannot be resolved. But there is no real dilemma here; rather, a misunderstanding concerning the stating of an objective:

"An objective is an educational goal so formulated that it incorporates the purposes of all those involved in its creation and at the same time satisfies superintendent, school board, parents, community, children, and all other interested parties."

The following is a desirable objective for ninth-grade English:

"To develop skill in, understanding and appreciation of, all forms of written and oral communication, including television."

Normally, ten or fifteen sessions of the committee are devoted to formulating a list of objectives which are sufficiently vague and general in statement to avoid stimulating controversy. To achieve this goal the objectives must read like the "Seven Cardinal Principles."

When your committee concludes with objectives and embarks upon detailing pupil needs it might save time by defining "pupil needs" early in the proceedings. A pupil need is a need which a school experience can gratify. Unlike objectives, which are stated in such vague and general terms that they lose meaning, student needs are couched in such specific language that they become trite. In the case of objectives, the fewer created the better. The world's record is five. But with needs, the more the merrier, and no one as yet has been able to unearth all of them.

If, in its search for needs, your committee finds it is not producing in sufficient quantity, the following expansion technique is suggested. To illustrate this technique take the need, "Skill in health habits." This is stated in terms which are much too general. It should be broken down into "skill in combing hair," "skill in washing face," and "skill in brushing teeth." If you are still

short in number, "skill in brushing teeth" can be atomized further into "skill in brushing upper teeth" and "skill in brushing lower teeth." The potential for creating quantity inherent in this technique is tremendous.

If you have the misfortune of having as members of your committee individuals who are sophisticated in curriculum theory, then beware! These are certain to introduce the social vs. individual need controversy and will filibuster your meetings for an indefinite period, repeating over and over again that the child is a social being or that we must consider child growth and development. Personally, I could never quite see the dichotomy between society and child, but there are those who become violent in their denunciation of people who hold my views.

William James once defined philosophy as a name for unanswered questions. Since education rests upon philosophical foundations, we might define education as the science predicated on educators' answers to questions that have not been answered. The nature of a curriculum is determined by the answers given to questions such as the following:

1. What is the universe made of, ideas or matter?
2. What is reality?
3. Is there a purpose for the universe or is its nature mechanistic?
4. What is the good life?
5. Are men made to be happy?
6. Does man have a soul?
7. Are values external and absolute or are they nothing more than anthropological or sociological exhibits created by man as a convenience?

As an illustration, let us consider the two possible answers to the question relative to the nature of value just stated, and develop curricular principles from them. As we noted, one viewpoint insists that values are unchangeable and absolute, and were revealed to us by God. This is the belief held by all religions and therefore is the majority belief if membership in a religious denomination implies acceptance of its

EDITOR'S NOTE

Dr. Bartky, dean of the School of Education, Stanford University, has a connoisseur's appreciation of the ludicrous antics and foibles that often are involved in curriculum-revision, as well as serious ideas about how that process can be strengthened and made more sure of itself. And so, generously and with good will, he gives us both barrels.

tenets. Granted values are absolute, curriculum means: emotionalize and indoctrinate values, teach complete faith in their validity, and give experience in value interpretation and application. Bible reading as it was done in the Puritan families was such an educational approach. The education of Hutchins and Adler is an elaboration and extension of this kind of curriculum.

But most men of science deny the absolute nature of value. Even in its so-called "natural laws" science never claims the ultimate. It refuses to be emotionalized or awed into accepting anything as eternal, external, and absolute. Values are nothing more than human choices, accepted today and rejected tomorrow. If we accept science's concept of relative value our curriculum becomes quite different from that which insists upon an absolute concept. Instead of fixing values emotionally and through faith, the teacher teaches critical examination of value. Instead of instructing the child to behave according to values, he shows him how to build values out of his behavior.

If your committee does not at some time during its deliberations bog down in a metaphysical or epistemological argument, disband it, for it is not qualified to carry on curriculum study. But when it does wallow in philosophical debate only time will extricate it. If there was such a thing as a universal meeting of minds, there would be no philosophy. Philosophical is-

sues are often resolved by fatigue and boredom, not by discussion.

As you struggle you will be continually called upon to avoid an anarchy of words: words that are intensional where extensional language is necessary to understanding, ambiguous words, and words heavily loaded with emotional content. The Biblical Tower of Babel might well have been an allegory for an ancient curriculum meeting.

One word that causes confusion and misunderstanding is the term "democracy." There are some steeped in pragmatic materialism who, in their need for religious experience, have made democracy their god and democratic process their faith. To these, democratic and godly are synonymous. When they encounter an administrator who pleases them (which rarely occurs), unlike the Ancient Greeks they label him as being democratic rather than godlike. They talk of cooperative democratic supervision, democratic administration, and creative democratic curriculums. All that is good is democratic. All that is democratic is good. Conversely, everything that is not palatable to these worshippers of democracy is traitorous, autocratic, and undemocratic.

There are others who would limit the word democracy to mean a form of governance. Although they recognize the democratic ideal they accept the fact that the ongoing democratic process is fraught with problems and dilemmas. They are not always in sympathy with the blind uncritical and hysterical devotion with which some regard the word democracy. Their approach to making democracy work is cold, objective, and experimental. These are no less Americans than their emotional fellow citizens. Both contribute to the success of the democratic way of life, but when they meet on the battlefield of curricular discussion the resulting conflict is likely to be uncompromising and vicious. Evangelism and

science have difficulty understanding each other.

There are yet others who, although their interest is centered in the democratic process, greatly oversimplify this process in their thinking. To these, democracy means little more than group discussions and committee sessions. They blind themselves to the fact that the strength of any organization, either business or social, is a mathematical function of the extent to which that organization coordinates specializations to achieve its purposes. Ours is a nation of specialists, not a debating society. American culture tolerates even such a specialization as "curriculum expert," whose judgments might be more significant than those dragged from an unwilling, untrained committee.

Compounding the confusion over the word "democracy" are a host of other words and phrases that lack specificity and meaning. Readiness, frustration, aggression, guidance, tolerance, experience, cooperation, are a few of these words. Some of the phrases that fail to contribute much to curricular thinking are:

"Education must be scientific."

"We must consider the whole child."

"A curriculum must be based upon child growth and development."

"There must be a general-education core to every curriculum."

"The curriculum must grow out of children's experiences."

These are slogans which have no significance when separated from the great mass of developmental material which they generalize. They are about as helpful as the Burma Shave signs that mar the highway.

When your committee has formulated six or seven meaningless objectives; when it has found five or six hundred pupil needs, after it has debated philosophy and following a period of confusion over words, it will reach the stage in its development where it will consider curriculum organization. There are even more curriculum organiza-

tions than there are curriculum experts. Each expert is likely to offer two or three in his lifetime. Neither is there one organization of each type. There are hundreds of subject-centered curriculums, more child-centered curriculums, and even more project curriculums. I would not venture to estimate the number of general-education curriculums offered.

Curriculum organizations are customarily predicated upon a single assumption while all other possible assumptions are likely to be ignored. This is because curriculums are usually developed deductively in Euclidean fashion and deductive reasoning is extremely difficult unless its premises are limited in number. Thus, we find complete project curriculums based upon the single assumption that we learn by wholes instead of by parts, child-centered curriculums based upon the single assumption that a child learns only when in a condition of readiness for learning, activity curriculums based upon the single assumption that we learn by doing (often with hammer and nails only), and general-education curriculums based upon some educator's assumption as to what are the commonalities in learning.

There is rarely anything fundamentally unacceptable in the basic assumptions in these curriculums and the logic used to develop them is immaculate. The fault lies in the resulting oversimplification. We dare not base the educational structure upon a single pylon. Rather we must establish a condition of stable equilibrium which necessitates building our curriculum on many assumptions instead of one or two.

After almost a year of study and deliberation your committee will get to the dessert and begin apportioning the "time pie." When this stage is reached, all previous agreements and conclusions will be discarded in the wild scramble to get a share of the time allotments. It is at this point that teacher nature will exhibit itself in

its raw form. Politeness, respect, and reason will be brushed rudely aside as the mathematician struggles for more time for mathematics, the reading expert fights for more time for reading, and the physical-education advocate timidly pleads for more time for physical education. No matter what objectives may have been agreed upon, no matter what pupil needs may have been defined, all is lost in the process of time allotment compromise.

It was to avoid the conflict over time allotments that curriculum development leaders set up the practice of investigating objectives and needs. It was expected that an objective approach would result. It is difficult to comprehend how these experts could have been so naive. Did they expect that vested interests it took a lifetime to fix would be seriously disturbed by a few committee meetings? Did they believe that a teacher would with no reluctance eschew the security he associates with an existing curriculum in favor of the insecurity involved in a new one?

The struggle for an apportionment of time which marks curriculum study may not only disturb a curriculum study group; it may well extend into and disrupt the morale of an entire school system.

By this point in this recital, you are undoubtedly convinced that a curriculum study program is invariably doomed to fail. You have concluded that curriculum is based upon questions that cannot be answered and that the human relations dilemmas associated with curriculum study cannot be resolved. Why not give up the idea?

Education affects to be a science. We have already noted that even in its "laws" science does not pretend to find the permanent, the absolute, or the ultimate. What is scientific law today may be legitimately questioned tomorrow. Action, however, in science does not wait upon stability of hypotheses. All scientific hypotheses are by definition actionable. To await for certainty

would be to render science static. In a modern world, tentativeness of value does not suggest suspense of activity. Curriculum development is essential despite insecure curricular assumptions. That is typical of progress in all human activity. We do not quit living because we do not know why we are here. We do not quit writing and developing curriculums because we cannot agree on curricular foundations.

But curriculum study through committee activity leads to confusion, conflict, and uncertainty. Shall we give up curriculum committees? By no means. Confusion, conflict, and uncertainty are but waypoints on the long road to certainty. However, to assume that the sole approach to curriculum revision is by the group-discussion method is to seriously oversimplify the problem. The curriculum committee is a good nucleus but it must be greatly augmented by other activity.

A great part of curriculum study is carried on by the alert classroom teacher within the confines of the teaching environment. It is in the classroom where one really discovers a large majority of pupil needs. It is here also where one has an opportunity to measure the success of experiences created to meet pupil needs. Every time a teacher evaluates his teaching techniques he is engaging in a curriculum investigation. The teacher who is not changing the curriculum every time he faces a class is not teaching.

We can look upon human values in two ways: We can think of them as gifts of God or we can conclude that they are the choices of men. If they are the gifts of God they have been with us always. If they are men's choices, they must represent choices over a long period of time and they, too, have been with us always. Hence, we learn about values from history and from contemporary society. If we would discover values which are significant to curriculum study we cannot hope for success operating in the vacuum of a committee. We must call upon

tradition and we must inspect the present.

Schools are created by society for the purpose of perpetuating its values. No curriculum revision can be lawful without society's approval. No curriculum revision can be valid without society's value contributions. These things we do not achieve by inviting a few parents or leading citizens to join us in our curriculum deliberations, to sit respectfully silent while we indulge in intellectual exercise. They are achieved by going into the community and by inspecting its purposes. They are achieved by asking for community consent to curriculum revision. And they are achieved by conforming to community insistence even if such insistence is in the direction of demanding more of the three "R's."

In their attempt to sell a very restricted curriculum, which had considerable merit in some aspects but which also had many limitations, the progressives employed the age-old propaganda technique of setting up a straw man and then tearing the poor defenseless creature apart. Their straw man was "traditional education." Traditional education was bad because it was old fashioned. As a result of this propaganda, which associated everything that was undesirable in education with the word "tradition," some educators look askance at any curriculum that is more than a year old.

It is from tradition that we get most of our stable values. To toss aside a curriculum because it is traditional is to cast away established knowledge. Fortunately, it is impossible for us to think in terms which ignore tradition, so despite our efforts to disregard the past in our curriculum deliberations we have not been too successful in so doing. An established curriculum should be considered satisfactory unless it is demonstrated to be otherwise. The older a curriculum is, the more it is entitled to consideration and respect. Senility is not a disease of knowledge.

The most conceited and unproductive thing a curriculum committee can do is to

disregard an existing curriculum and attempt to build a new one from "scratch." It is in this attempt that it meets all the absurd situations we have already mentioned in our facetious description of the curriculum committee.

The first principle in curriculum study is to start where you are. A good procedure is to attempt to describe just what your school system is doing insofar as curriculum is concerned. In this attempt you will discover many inadequacies, many inconsistencies, and many omissions to provide against. Curriculum study is always evolution, never revolution. Among other things, you are certain to find that your curriculum is not well integrated and that it does not flow smoothly from grade to grade and from subject to subject. If you are able in a year to improve the integration in even the smallest degree; if you are successful in making the shift from one grade to another a little less traumatic for the student, count your work a tremendous success.

There have been many great minds who have interested themselves in curriculum study. In your anxiety to solve your curriculum problems through committee action, do not choose to disregard what these minds have to offer. No matter how brilliant your committee is, it cannot recreate all the thoughts of a humanity prolific with great ideas. At least before you begin your

deliberations, read a few of the works on curriculum study, study the curriculums from other school systems, and listen to the advice of experts from your own systems as well as from outside it.

May I, in typical school-teacher fashion, attempt to teach by reiteration what I have undoubtedly failed to impress through logic?

1. In a dynamic world where change is almost synonymous with progress, curriculum revision is inevitable.
2. The process of curriculum revision is an evolutionary, not a revolutionary one.
3. The problems of curriculum are extremely complex and demand profound study and research. They cannot all be solved in a few meetings of a curriculum committee.
4. Curriculum revision calls for total effort and involvement. It is the major aspect of teaching. It is a citizen's obligation, and its contributors include the children.
5. No curriculum can in the nature of things ever be called complete. The conclusion of one curriculum study merely marks the beginning of another.
6. Curriculum study demands unselfish devotion to the cause of education. It cannot thrive where there are vested interests, where there is indifference, or where there is intellectual intolerance.



Music for the Community

In considering the relationship between publicity and public relations there are at least two fundamental principles that must be kept in mind: First, good publicity will not make up for poor public relations. Many music directors feel that all that is necessary in a public-relations program is to have a "splurge" in the local newspaper at convenient intervals. While newspaper publicity is important, it is not enough.

Music must function in the community. Its activities must find their way out of the school building into the lives of the people of the community. The school band must play for a variety of community

activities, not only for athletic contests. The choir must sing at civic and social gatherings throughout the community, not only at festivals and contests. Soloists and small ensembles must be prepared to perform at various types of civic, social, and religious meetings. Music students must be encouraged to take an active part in local church music activities.

The effectiveness of the contribution that the music department can make in a public-relations program can be measured only by the degree to which music functions in the community.—B. M. BAKKEGARD in *Music Educators Journal*.

A Synthetic "Best Program"

for GRADES 7, 8, 9

By
WARREN W. COXE

THE NEW YORK State Education Department, through its Division of Research, has launched a series of studies leading to a program of early secondary education (grades 7, 8, and 9) for New York State. The program will not concern itself with the organization of these grades—they may be organized as a separate junior high school, as part of a six-year secondary school, or in other ways. It will be concerned with the basic principles and best practices of an instructional program.

Because the report must be ready in the fall of 1953, original studies have not been planned. Rather, information from various sources is being collected. These sources are listed below. It will be noted that these will give data concerning a theoretically desirable program, data on programs which are now in successful operation, data on what educators believe should be included in the program, and data on the observations of lay groups as to the strong points of a good program. Following are the sources of information:

1. *Characteristics of the early adolescent:* The literature on individual differences and on trait differences will be reviewed. Data on growth patterns will be reviewed and new analyses made. These summaries will aim at defining as clearly as possible the needs of the early adolescent.

2. *Impact of social and economic forces:* Again, available literature will be analyzed. A series of summaries will be prepared clarifying the social impact upon the adolescent, including elements of our cultural heritage, the practice of democratic living,

and understanding of our rapidly changing society.

3. *Practices of more than 25 junior high schools and six-year high schools generally considered to be good:* These schools were chosen by people who have had occasion to visit many schools. Teams of four people have visited these schools to find out firsthand what practices make them good. Each team is made up of one member of the staff of the Division of Research, one member of the Division of Secondary Education, one professor from a teachers college, and one public-school administrator acquainted with junior high schools.

4. *Opinions and judgments of professional groups:* For this purpose a questionnaire is used. It seeks information on (a) practices which have had particularly desirable effects on early adolescents, (b) practices which should be introduced, (c) reasons why these desirable practices have not been introduced, (d) topics which should be discussed in a program of early secondary education, and (e) recommendations on such specific matters as size of class, conditions for entrance to junior high school, length of school day.

The following professional groups are cooperating in getting this information: New York State Association of Secondary School Principals, Council of City and Village Superintendents, New York State Teachers Association, and the New York State Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

5. *Suggestions from lay groups:* Again a questionnaire is being used but only two

questions are asked. One asks them to indicate what things the junior high school has done for children which they think of particular value, and the other, what things would they like junior high schools to do which they are not now doing. The New York State Congress of Parents and Teachers and the American Association of University Women are now working upon these questions. It is expected that a number of local citizens' committees will also assist.

6. *Review of literature:* Literature reporting relevant research or describing successful practices is being reviewed.

It should be noted that an open-end approach has been made to get these data. That is, no structure for a final report was agreed upon, with data to be gathered related to the headings of the report. It was expected that the structure would emerge as the data were gathered. This has been true. A tentative outline has emerged, but it is subject to change as the data undergo further study.

It is desirable that the program which will be presented in the final report be valid in the sense that it will satisfy the needs of the pupils and of society and at the same time be practical enough so that schoolmen can put it into operation effectively and so that laymen will give it support. This may be expecting too much, but every effort will be made to reach this objective.

Closely related is another objective. Such a program must not perpetuate old practices which have little to recommend them other than tradition. On the other hand, the program will not function if it is presented in terms of theory, even though the theory may be sound. It is hoped that a program will be presented which will be workable as well as being both stimulating and theoretically defensible.

There is danger that recommended practices may be attempted in situations where they are inappropriate or where there is insufficient knowledge of the underlying

principles. To avoid this possibility, the practices are being reviewed by a psychologist and a sociologist. Principles are being worked out and the conditions under which the practices will succeed stated specifically.

While many details, such as outlines of courses, will not be attempted, it is hoped that a document will be prepared which will serve as a guide for further development and as a basis for evaluating present programs.

There are many aspects of a desirable educational program for early adolescents on which there is no research or inconclusive research and which are not now in practice in any school. Inevitably this will lead to use of best available evidence and possibly, in some instances, to complete omission of suggestion. However, there should emerge a better knowledge of the research which is most needed.

Although this will be a report from the State Education Department, it will not be a statement of minima but, rather, a statement of the best program which seems feasible at the present time. It should be looked upon as a goal to be attained. Because of this, there will be many problems left to local schools to study for themselves.

EDITOR'S NOTE

A report on basic principles and best practices for a modern program of early secondary education (grades 7, 8, and 9, wherever they occur in a school organization) will be issued by the New York State Education Department in 1953. The report will be synthetic in the sense that its data are being drawn from educational literature; the practices of more than 25 schools that are considered exceptionally good; opinions and judgments of professional groups; and suggestions from lay groups. Dr. Coxe is director of the Division of Research of the State Education Department and director of the studies upon which the report will be based.

It is contemplated that a series of guides will eventually be prepared to aid local schools in studying these problems. It may also be necessary to prepare a number of measuring instruments to be used in connection with the guides.

If one word were chosen to characterize this research, it would be "cooperation."

Cooperation is being employed to prepare the basic document; cooperation will be necessary to put it into effect. It is more than an Education Department document; it will represent a consensus of the thinking of many groups and many individuals. It is a state document, not a department document.



Tricks of the Trade

By TED GORDON

STRETCH A POINT—Handiest thing we've seen in a long time is the 8-inch thin rubber band. Might be hard to get in some stationery stores but you can use such bands for many purposes: holding together manila folders full of things, around packages, and even to make self-closing closet or cabinet doors. For the last-named just screw in some eyelets or cup hooks on each door and attach one or more bands, individually or in series, to get the proper tension.

STUDY HALL—A set or two of old encyclopedias discarded by the library and a current issue of the *World Almanac* may be of great value for reference work in the study hall. Have the encyclopedias on shelves and allow the student to use them at will. Such material is not only convenient but cuts down considerably on students' trips to the library.—*Edith H. Broberg,*

John Rogers High School, Spokane, Wash.

BAND DIRECTORS—I have found that I can save a great deal of time by recording marching and band numbers on tape and then using these recordings in drilling drum major and novelty sidelines connected with an occasion. All I have to do is to sit and run the recording while they polish their routine and perfect their timing.—*Henry Williamson,* Canby, Minn.

VARIANT OF SOFTBALL—For a game that is fun to play and uses the same skills as regular softball follow these rules: (1) Have player of team at bat be the pitcher; (2) set a limit of three throws to each batter, including fouls; (3) make sure that the pitcher is not a fielder; (4) no intentional bunting; (5) no base stealing.—*Walt Jacobsmeyer,* Coaching Staff, University of Southern California.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Please try to limit contributions to 50 words or fewer—the briefer the better. Original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE. Dr. Gordon teaches in East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.*

WORLDLY IDEA—A large colored world map on the back wall of every classroom helps to pinpoint current events. Brief news articles typed or written are tacked in eight numbered rectangular boxes below the map. Numbered tabs corresponding at these boxes indicate the geographic location of these events on the map.—*Irving Flinker,* Asst. Prin., Junior High School 109, Brooklyn, N.Y.

“HELPING TEACHER”

Plan of Webster High

By
HELEN M. JONES

THE PRINCIPAL of Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Okla., has observed for several years that orienting teachers to a specific high school requires a specific plan for that school, if it has a philosophy that it is definitely attempting to implement.

He also observed that much experience presented problems as well as too little experience. This last observation encouraged him to recommend the employment of graduates just out of college and with no teaching experience, provided he could free a person on his staff part time to help with an orientation program.

The school is small—the staff numbers forty-two, and each teacher is a key person in the total school program. In addition to classroom work, each teacher must carry his share of special assignments, hence orientation cannot be left to hit or miss methods.

The city-wide program for the induction of teachers new to the Tulsa Public Schools has been very successful for the past five or six years and is widening its scope each year. It provides for over-all help, such as obtaining housing, tours of the city, trips through the board of education building, breakfast and luncheons by professional organizations such as the Tulsa Classroom Teachers Association and the chamber of commerce to meet school and business personnel, meetings with the personnel office about insurance programs, sick leave, the teachers credit union, and departmental meetings with subject-matter supervisors.

Daniel Webster High School planned its orientation program to supplement the city-wide program. Its purposes are these:

1. To give the new teacher an opportunity to feel secure and a necessary part of the total faculty.
2. To give the new teacher some understanding of the school population and the community.
3. To clarify school policies.
4. To clarify the school philosophy.
5. To expedite the use of school forms, records, and reports.
6. To familiarize the new teachers with school routines such as fire drill, cafeteria, and pupil accounting.
7. To familiarize new teachers with the facilities of the local building as well as the facilities of the entire system.
8. To provide a group situation for new learning.
9. To help new teachers implement a new philosophy.

Freeing a part-time staff person with the specific responsibility of orienting teachers new to Daniel Webster High School was inaugurated at the beginning of the 1950-1951 school term. That year there were six teachers new to the school, three of whom had no previous teaching experience. For the next school term, 1951-1952, nine new teachers were employed. Of the nine, two had no teaching experience, three had only one year's experience, and four had two or more years' experience. For the present

school term, 1952-1953, there are fourteen of the faculty new to the school. Of these fourteen, two have no previous teaching experience, seven have three years or less, and the other five have five years or more.

Each year the entire faculty spends one week in pre-school meetings, discussing the implementation of the school philosophy. During this week of pre-school meetings, each so-called "new" teacher is assigned the customary "buddy" teacher. In addition a helping teacher is assigned to the group of new teachers.

It is the responsibility of this helping teacher to assist in any way and place where help is needed. In the program to date there has been a two-fold approach, a regularly scheduled weekly meeting of all new teachers with the helping teacher, and the more informal approach of individual counseling.

In the regularly scheduled weekly meetings the discussions at first naturally center about school routine, such as keeping records, proper use of school forms, importance and use of the cumulative record, progress reports to parents, and the annual report. An attempt is made to discuss the use of each form or report at the time of its use.

We try to keep these meetings very informal and friendly so that the teachers feel at ease and free to ask questions. After the matters of school routine are out of the way the group makes its own plans for the remaining meetings. The members determine which group and individual problems are of immediate concern and need to be studied.

The meeting topics and procedures that are discussed in this article are not all-inclusive nor have all of them been experienced by each group each year. The ones discussed are those that seem to be most helpful to new teachers.

At a very early meeting each year, both the dean of boys and the dean of girls spend

one meeting explaining how they can best help new teachers.

Another meeting held very early each year is one in which the reading scores of the incoming ninth grade are studied and discussed with a view to helping all teachers new to the school to understand the school population and its background.

Several of the most interesting and helpful meetings have been those at which members of the more experienced regular staff serve as panel members, discussing such things as teaching to provide for individual differences, the importance of planning, how learning takes place, and how to work with the slow readers.

One very profitable meeting was planned with one of the new teachers presenting a case study of one of his problem pupils. After the problem was presented, the group suggested solutions. Later the teacher presenting the case study gave the solution he had used.

Some of the better teaching films and recordings are used whenever they fit the topics under discussion.

A most helpful and enjoyable meeting this year presented parents on a rather informal panel, with the principal serving as chairman. This was an early morning meeting where doughnuts and coffee were served. The parents were selected so as to be fairly representative of the school. Some were new to the school, some came for their first meeting even though their children were seniors, and some, of course, were the faithful standbys who always come when called. The discussion in this meeting was simply on what parents expected from the school. The parents thoroughly enjoyed this meeting and still drop in occasionally for the morning meetings of new teachers.

The officers of the PTA are invited in for one meeting each year to explain fully the various activities and the importance of their work.

All new teachers employed for the Tulsa

Schools are on three years' probation. Each year during this probationary period it is the responsibility of the principal to write to the superintendent of schools a letter which is a very careful evaluation of the teacher's work and further promise as a teacher.

Before this letter is written by the principal of Daniel Webster High School, each teacher has a conference with him to discuss the letter and its contents. Last year, before the time for these principal-teacher conferences, the principal presented the problem of his responsibility and asked the new teachers to work out some plan for the conferences. The group of new teachers spent two morning meetings working out an outline to be used in the conference. It was the group's suggestion that each new teacher fill out one of the outlines which was a partial evaluation of his work and present it to the principal several days before the conference. This proved a most satisfactory preparation.

Occasionally it seems necessary to leave an open meeting date for a general "gripe" session. The therapeutic value seems to be effective for both the new teachers and the helping teacher.

Space does not permit an adequate description of all different meetings held during the year. Many are just planned group discussions on topics such as teaching procedures, specific classroom problems, evaluation, and professional literature. In these discussions many of the school staff are used as resource people. The supervisors and assistant superintendents from the city administration also assist as called upon.

In addition to the regularly scheduled group meetings each week, the helping teacher attempts to do much individual counseling. By far the major part of the work consists in being available to listen, answer questions, encourage, and suggest other people who can help. Very early in the school year it seems important just to

EDITOR'S NOTE

"Mrs. Jones," writes T. H. Broad, principal of Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Okla., in submitting her report, "is in charge of our program for orienting new teachers. Her position is that of 'helping teacher.' She is assisted by the 'buddy teachers,' one of whom is assigned to each new teacher. She has no administrative nor supervisory nor rating responsibilities, but serves purely as a 'helping teacher.'" An interesting point about the plan is that it allows the school to employ graduates just out of college, with no previous teaching experience.

be around each morning as teachers register, to greet them and ask how things are going. Another device for casual contacts is lunching with various new teachers during the week.

Even before new teachers arrive, the helping teacher may intercede for modified schedules for them, with at least one free period for planning.

Often new teachers can profit from observing more experienced teachers' classrooms in the same building or in other schools. In addition to the time provided by the free period, the helping teacher does substitute teaching in order to provide time for this observation. Not only does this free the regular teacher, but it provides the helping teacher an opportunity to observe first hand the new teacher's classroom organization, ability to plan, and special competencies in his particular field. By careful use of this procedure an opportunity is provided for the experienced teacher to make helpful suggestions. In this way the helping teacher can often detect the kind of help the department supervisor can give which is mutually helpful in a large school system.

Some other ways in which the helping teacher has attempted to assist are: demon-

stration teaching, giving objective tests, suggesting professional literature for specific problems, and observing classroom procedures.

The role of the helping teacher carries with it no rating power. This is probably one of the prime requisites. It means a great deal to a new teacher to have an experienced person to turn to when problems arise, especially when there is no fear of rating.

It is equally essential that the person in the role of helping teacher be very secure himself, both in his role as a classroom teacher and as part of the total school faculty.

One role of the helping teacher is that of the expeditor, one who knows the facilities of the local building and the central administrative offices.

Another role is that of a buffer for the new teachers—between them and administration, faculty, pupils, community.

As one observes the helping teacher develop the buffer role over several years, he seems to serve three well-defined groups of new teachers. First, there is the group without experience. With them he is a buffer between their philosophy and the implementation of that philosophy. Next there is the group with much experience. For them he serves as a buffer between practices in former schools and those in the new school. The third group is that second-year group who were the new teachers the previous year. The helping teacher serves as a buffer between their new over-enthusiasm to try too many new ventures and the inevitable failure of some.

Much could be said about the proper qualifications for selecting the helping teacher. However, a great deal of help can be provided for most new teachers if there is someone available who is willing and concerned to see that they are properly oriented to a new teaching situation.



First & Last: "Let's Get a Big Grant From a Foundation"

The histories and reports of educational foundations have made available the number and nature of the purposes for which grants have been given. Of even greater interest would be a compilation of requests for grants which have been rejected. If there is truth in the rumor that the president of a great foundation plans to publish his autobiography under the title, "My Declining Years," it is to be hoped that he will include a list of the projects for which grants were declined.

Abraham Flexner in his recently published book, *Funds and Foundations: Their Policies, Past and Present*, has already pointed out that foundations have made the mistake of giving small grants for small projects. It would be interesting to know the size and nature of the projects that were not supported. More particularly, however, it would be of real value to discover whether the projects for which grants were not obtained could not have been carried out without such financial help.

There seems to be current a notion that no problem and no issue can be solved without resorting first to a foundation for financial assistance. It is not an unfair inference that the existence of the philanthropic foundations may, in fact, inhibit the

necessary effort to solve problems that are considered to be pressing. It is not invidious to cite the following as an example.

In a certain area of this country a strong feeling had been expressed that inadequate attention was being given to the humanities in institutions for the education of teachers. Immediately a resolution was adopted to submit a request for financial assistance to a foundation (actually named) in order to be able to investigate the problem, which should in fact be investigated by the groups concerned without waiting for assistance. No thought is given to the question of how to implement the results of an inquiry financed with a foundation grant.

Some years ago Thomas H. Briggs drew up a list of investigations conducted at great expense with funds from foundations and asked what improvements had been made in the subjects investigated. They were, in fact, very little, and for the obvious reason that the investigation had not been initiated and the results determined by those most nearly affected by them. One can only ask whether all thinking and investigating would stop, if foundations ceased to exist.—I. L. KANDEL in *School and Society*.

WHAT GRAMMAR IS FUNCTIONAL?

By
J. C. TRESSLER

AGAIN GRAMMAR is a respectable word, suitable for use at a convention of English teachers. The National Council of Teachers of English, the Curriculum Commission, and teachers generally approve the teaching of functional grammar. But right there the agreement stops, and educators begin to argue vigorously about what grammar is functional and how to teach grammar.

Unlike some other arguments, this one won't be settled on election day. In a way this is unfortunate. Some teachers, after hearing at a convention a professor of education gleefully demolish grammar, go back to their classrooms and either teach no grammar at all or teach grammar without enthusiasm, ingenuity, or conviction. Such routine teaching of grammar is only slightly better than no teaching of the subject.

My answer to the question, "What Grammar Is Functional?" is based chiefly on common sense and the experience of able teachers rather than on investigations. I have great faith in the hard common sense of the teachers who are doing the supremely important job of Englishing the American youth. Any time I'll accept the judgment of a thousand experienced English teachers in preference to the findings in a half-baked investigation or in an investigation in which a teacher proves exactly what he set out to prove.

Dr. Rollo Lyman and Dr. Mildred Dawson have performed a valuable service for English teachers by summarizing numerous investigations in our field. But there is no need for English teachers to stand in awe

of every investigator and every investigation. A scientific evaluation of the investigations in our field has yet to be made. When it is made it may well show that some investigations, supposedly scientific, are little more than expressions of wishful thinking on the part of the investigators. This has happened in other fields.

For example, take the football situation. Does television affect football attendance? Or doesn't it? The National Collegiate Athletic Association, which rather wanted to prove that TV *does* hurt football attendance, hired the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago for \$50,000 to survey the situation. The Center spent the \$50,000 and proved exactly what the N.C.A.A. wanted proved: "Television does definite damage to college football attendance."

The National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters paid the bill for another survey. The broadcasters wanted to prove that TV doesn't hurt the gate—and would you believe it, they proved just that. In fact this survey proved that football attendance was better in television areas than in non-television areas, leading to the suspicion that TV helps the gate rather than hurts it.

For \$50,000 or \$100,000 any cigarette company can prove by doctors, housewives, or impartial experts that its cigarettes are milder than any other, have less throat scratch, or are kinder to the T-zone.

Nor is it only business surveys that we must examine with a critical eye. There are two kinds of educational investigators

who are not to be trusted: (1) the investigator who proves exactly what he sets out to prove; (2) the investigator who lacks the understanding of advanced mathematics and educational measurements necessary in scientific investigation.

Now what is the application of all this to functional grammar? *The English Language Arts*, prepared by the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English, says, "The best modern authorities in the teaching of foreign languages now assert that there is no need to teach English grammar to prepare students for the study of a foreign language."

The Teaching of English, prepared by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools of England and published in 1952, says, "Can the boy who is learning (or is going to learn later) another language, ancient or modern, be helped by learning formal grammar in English? Undoubtedly he can: in practice he is so helped." This pronouncement is based on no investigation but on common sense and the experience of thousands of foreign-language teachers. Who is right? You'll decide for yourself. On this point, perhaps because I once taught a Latin class for thirty weeks, I am pro-British.

Here's another application of my generalization about investigations. On page 301 *The English Language Arts* speaks of "the futility of diagramming" and indicates that this condemnation is based on research—one investigation, I believe.

The Teaching of English says, "In the first year a boy should learn to express the relationship of the parts of a simple sentence in a diagram or in graphic form. The diagram wins every time on speed, on accuracy, and on fostering pride in good work." This conclusion again is based, not on research, but on the experience of thousands of English teachers. Who is right? I shall not take sides on diagramming. I feel sure, however, that in a debate on diagramming, as in most debates, it is unwise

to call one's opponents absolutely wrong.

Another controversial subject is the relation of grammar to correct usage. Professor George Curme says, "English grammar is the English way of saying things." In this sense grammar and usage are synonyms. "Grammar," says Dr. Porter Perrin, "generally means a more or less systematic description of a language, general statements summarizing the observable facts of usage. Grammar allows a person to carry in mind the general pattern of his language rather than be forced to remember thousands of detached particulars." It provides a basis for discussing the facts of usage. It is a guide to observation and a plan for filing away observations.

A study of the structure of the English sentence does not produce correct English. In teaching usage it is of prime importance to provide abundant practice, in order to make the correct forms sound right. But grammatical study should make a pupil a critic of his own usage and enable him to pick himself up when he falls linguistically. The person who understands functional grammar substitutes thinking for the memorization of countless items of usage. When he hears a girl who has studied English in night school for one term say, "Marie is going to the game with Mildred and I," or "Whom did you say is going to pitch today?" he can figure out quickly what is wrong with this affected English. An understanding of functional grammar saves a person from unconscious absorption of the ungrammatical English he hears. A valid aim in grammar teaching is to help pupils test the correctness of sentences.

In the junior and senior high school it isn't sensible to rely exclusively on rote repetition in teaching usage. Abundant practice to make the correct expressions sound right and establish conditional reflexes should be supplemented by simple explanations of how the English language works here and now. John Dewey said, "The true purpose of exercises that apply rules

or principles is not so much to drill them in as to give adequate insight into an idea of principle."

The phrase "review of grammar" is a contradiction of terms. The difficulty is not that some pupils forget grammar from year to year but that they never learn it. Mastering the use of pronouns, for example, includes (1) understanding the use of pronouns, and (2) habitually using correct pronouns. When a pupil understands a topic in grammar and forms right habits, he isn't likely to forget.

Professor Irvah Winter, formerly head of the Public Speaking Department of Harvard University, told me about a student from Kentucky who was in the habit of saying "cain't" instead of *can't*. After considerable labor by the instructor and the student, the young man learned to say *can't* like a Bostonian.

Then he went home for vacation. When he returned to Harvard, he said to Professor Winter, "I'm all mixed up. You taught me to say *can't*. At home everybody says 'cain't,' and I cain't tell which is right."

Yes, the changing of language habits is a hard, slow business, but understanding helps to speed up the process.

How much grammar does a boy or girl need to use pronouns correctly? An understanding of subject, verb, direct object, indirect object, object of preposition, predicate nominative, and antecedent seems to me definitely useful. To fix in his speech the correct use of pronouns, a pupil should know also that *I, we, he, she, they, who*, and *whoever* are used as subjects and predicate nominatives and that *me, us, him, her, them, whom*, and *whomever* are used as objects.

An important principle in teaching pronouns is: Say what you would say for each one alone. He saw. I saw. He and I saw. Saw him. Saw me. Saw him and me. With him. With me. With him and me.

Unfortunately this principle doesn't work every time and doesn't cover the whole subject of pronouns. Try it on "between

EDITOR'S NOTE

Most of us agree that we should teach "functional" grammar, says Dr. Tressler, but have extremely different ideas in our heads about the meanings of "functional" and "teach" in this connection. The author is suspicious of the findings of many investigations purporting to guide us out of the confusion. He puts his faith in "the judgment of a thousand experienced English teachers." Dr. Tressler, who keeps himself occupied writing English textbooks for a Boston publisher, lives at 8324 Edgerton Blvd., Jamaica Estates, N.Y.

him and me," "but him and me," "let's you and me go," "that's he," "the winners were he and I," "older than he and I," "are he and I invited," "it was he and I."

In studying verbs a pupil should understand principal parts, tenses, uses of *lie, lay, sit*, and *set*, agreement of subject and predicate, and if he is a superior student, the subjunctive.

Second, a knowledge of grammar helps a pupil learn to speak and write effective sentences. Grammar for sentence improvement is functional. Approximately thirty years ago C. H. Ward invented the term, "grammar for style." An English teacher isn't likely to stimulate matter-of-fact boys or girls to write with striking originality of conception and vividness of expression. But he can train average students to build pleasing, varied sentences. He can teach grammar for style—for example, the building of subject-not-first sentences and complex sentences; the use of appositives, participles, and compound predicates; and the introduction occasionally of a question, a command, or an exclamation. He can train pupils to use these types of sentences instead of a series of monotonous simple and compound sentences all strung together by *and*. Grammar also provides a terminology in which the teacher can talk to his pupils about their badly constructed sentences.

The English Language Arts says, "Most important is the principle that grammar should be taught to help students so to analyze and understand parts of the sentence that they can strive continuously for variety, interest, and exactness in sentence structure. When learners can pass from making a sentence grammatically correct to building one in which varied material is integrated into a unit that has shape and direction, grammar has become the servant of composition."

Grammar for modification, subordination, and clarity is functional. Pupils should be trained to make clear what the antecedent of each pronoun is, to express parallel ideas in parallel form, to express a minor idea with an adjective, an adverb, a phrase, or a dependent clause, and to place modifiers near the words modified if clarity requires this arrangement.

They should avoid or revise sentences like this: "We gave an extra performance for the benefit of the orphans in town hall." They should learn that in badly arranged sentences like the following a writer confuses his readers by painting a picture and then smashing it in the last phrase:

"Mark Twain had a shock of hair like a cockatoo and a russet handlebar mustache as a young man."

"Wordsworth had lively revolutionary sympathies and a burning desire to see the old order give way to a new era of liberty and equality, in his younger days."

"Horace Walpole wielded immense power over the English nobility, dictating to them with absolute authority, in matters of etiquette."

"I lost my frantic hold on the rocky face of the cliff and hurtled screaming down into the stormy waters below, last night, in a terrible dream."

What grammatical understanding will help pupils to build better sentences? Here are the important ones: subject, verb, compound predicate, modifier, prepositional phrase, participial phrase, infinitive phrase,

clause, dependent clause, complex sentence, inverted sentence, appositive, and voice. "Why voice?" you ask. The answer is, Teach voice so that students may learn to use the active voice for vigor and the passive for minimizing the doer of the action. The pupil should learn to recast in the active voice a sentence like "The magic skyline of New York was seen through the slowly thinning fog," and to use the passive to avoid "The nation elected General Dwight Eisenhower president."

The third valid aim of grammar instruction is to help pupils punctuate to convey the meaning intended. Grammar for punctuation is functional. How can a pupil learn to punctuate essential and non-essential phrases and clauses or compound sentences if he doesn't know a phrase or a clause when he sees it? How can he learn to use a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point at the end of every sentence if he doesn't know what a sentence is?

There are, to be sure, other methods of punctuating. One way is according to pauses. Pauses, however, depend upon phrasing and emphasis and frequently don't coincide with punctuation marks. Often a pause for phrasing or emphasis is desirable where punctuation isn't needed. Sometimes the eye needs a punctuation mark where the ear does not require a pause. In the sentence, "I saw Bob, Fred, and Jack at the game," the commas are useful but no pause is needed.

Another way is to punctuate according to meaning. But telling a pupil to use punctuation wherever necessary for clarity is no guarantee that the pupil's sentences will be punctuated according to meaning. This system substitutes the pupil's immature judgment for the consensus of opinion of educators, writers, and editors as to where punctuation helps the reader.

The fourth valid aim of grammar teaching is to help pupils get the meaning out of complicated sentences. Grammar for reading is functional. A pupil's difficulty

in reading a sentence may be due to the thought, the wording, or the construction. A way to get started on a hard inverted sentence is by finding the subject and the verb of the independent clause and by discovering the dependent clauses. Without a knowledge of sentence structure a reader is as much at sea in extracting the thought from a complicated sentence as a surgeon without a knowledge of anatomy would be in performing an operation.

In *The Happy Profession*, Ellery Sedgwick says:

In the classroom Billings had the priceless gift of keeping boys on their toes. With what skill he brought us through the horrid complexities of indirect discourse! All that Caesar did to obfuscate the intelligence of small boys, he undid with an ingenious system of what he called Chinese boxes. Take a sentence beset with inner clauses, one tucked within the next. Billings would pick up a series of colored chalks. Writing an inextricable Latin sentence on the board, he would underscore the subject in white, and then, passing over half a dozen convolutions, would mark the predicate also in white. There you had your statement. Some man said or did something. Then for its modification he would underline the principal subordinate clause in yellow. It was quite easy to understand, now you had got a firm grip on it. But at the heart of the sentence still remained an undigested clause, and within that some pernicious phrase invented for the devil of it. Mark these with green and blue. The sentence became intelligible. Caesar was licked.

Yes, that's a first-rate method of teaching a pupil to read a Latin sentence or a sentence in any other language, English included, if a chief difficulty is the sentence structure.

Now let's look at the other side of the picture. What grammar isn't functional? Here are terms we can get along very well

without: declarative sentence, imperative sentence, interrogative sentence, exclamatory sentence, transitive, intransitive, nominative of address, abstract noun, demonstrative pronoun, intensive pronoun, reflexive pronoun, syntactical redundancy, predicate objective, adverbial objective, substantive, verb phrase, verbal, gerund. But can we really banish the terrifying gerund? Yes, by following the most popular grammar ever published, Reed and Kellogg's, copyrighted in 1877. Reed and Kellogg simply present two kinds of participles: participles used as adjectives and participles used as nouns.

Here are just a few ancient grammatical distinctions which aren't now worth bothering about: It is I/me; Who/Whom did you see? Who/Whom are you looking for? I do not know who/whom you can ask; I feel bad/badly about his death; shall, will; real, really; due to, because of; in back of, behind; if, whether; try and, try to; slow, slowly; proved, proven; got, gotten.

For some reason many pupils resist the grammatical vocabulary, though they will learn much harder words in history and science. Perhaps they resist because some of us don't teach grammar with imagination, ingenuity, and conviction and don't relate grammatical terms directly enough to actual use of the language. We should teach a few terms for word relationships thoroughly and put them to use promptly in lively speech and writing. Taught in this way, grammar ceases to be a dreary waste of forgotten terms and useless technicalities. It functions instead as a living force in helping our students to clarify and enrich their speech and their writing.



There is something of a paradox in the fact that, while American education is devoted to the preservation of democracy, there is in general a failure to help students to understand the human values without which democracy becomes meaningless.—I. L. KANDEL in *School and Society*.

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language arts*

COMMENTATORS

By
ROBERT WAYNE

LANGUAGE ARTS in the junior-high level today encompass four important fields of activity: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The listening phase is now getting its due attention along with the other three fields. To promote the objectives of the language-arts program I worked out a unit on radio commentators.

My objective for the unit was to get students to discriminate in their listening between fact, opinion, and emotion; to make them aware of the qualities of reliable speakers; and to encourage them to listen more often to the news.

The area to be covered in the unit was to be an analysis of eight commentators over a nine-week period. A survey was made in the class to find out which commentators were listened to at home, either by the students or their parents. From this listing the pupils decided on the eight to be analyzed. They were: Gabriel Heatter, Elmer Davis, Frank Hemingway, Fulton Lewis, Jr., Edward R. Murrow, H. V. Kaltenborn, Lowell Thomas, and Walter Winchell.

The student activities followed each Friday were in this order:

1. The class listened to a biographical sketch of the commentator prepared by a student.
2. The class listened to a tape-recorded program of the commentator. Boys and girls took notes and rated the speaker on a form provided for that purpose.
3. The class discussed the commentator on the basis of the rating sheet, and every attempt was made to be objective.

4. A total class rating for the commentator was entered on a class rating sheet.

5. Each class member wrote the first draft of a composition about the commentator, including a paragraph on his life, another paragraph on the area of news he covered, a further one on the way the class rated him, and a final paragraph covering the student's personal rating of the commentator.

The rating sheets used by pupils for each commentator were divided into four sections:

1. Items of news covered.
2. Answer Yes or No on the following points:

Did he give the facts of the news clearly?
Did he explain the news any further?
Was he calm in his reporting?
Did he give his own opinion of the news?
Did he show excitement in his voice?
Did he stir you to think about the news?
Did he speak clearly?
Did he use words you could understand?
Did he leave you with a feeling of excitement?
Did he leave you with a feeling that you had been well-informed on the news?

3. Rate the commentator "excellent," "good," "fair," or "poor" on each of the following: facts; delivery; and explanation.

4. (Space for "Other comments" followed.)

During the ensuing week the young people wrote the final draft of their compositions in ink. Each composition, along with the individual rating sheet, was filed away until the ninth week of the unit.

During the ninth week, the art department entered into the unit by providing

instruction and opportunity for the pupils to prepare a cover for a booklet. The booklet was to include the eight compositions and eight rating sheets that each student had completed during the previous weeks. Each student was encouraged to create his own cover.

On the Friday of the ninth week all compositions and rating sheets were returned to the class to be included in the booklet. The teacher also provided a dittoed rating sheet which included the combined class ratings on each commentator along with some of the student comments made at the time each commentator was discussed orally.

At this point the pupils learned about the formation of a book. They were required to provide a title page for the booklet; to include a foreword in which they explained the procedure and purpose of the project; to write a table of contents; to organize the compositions according to a table of contents; to include an appendix containing the rating sheets; and to write an index for the booklet.

At the conclusion of the unit each boy and girl felt that something good had been accomplished. There had been no attempt to encourage the students to listen to any particular commentator. That was a decision each student would have to make for himself on the basis of what he learned from the unit. The class had practice in carrying on discussions, in writing compositions obeying the rules of grammar, in listening to and understanding oral material.

A committee of six students selected eight booklets—one to be mailed to each of the commentators studied in the unit. Along with the booklets went a letter explaining what had been done and asking for any suggestions which the commentators might make in order to improve the unit.

H. V. Kaltenborn replied: "I was particularly impressed with the many fields of study in which this project stimulated stu-

dents' interest. . . . I think we should all be flattered at the generous quality of student comments which our work elicited . . . a most worthwhile school project."

Frank Hemingway had this to say: ". . . it is a cause for a moment's reflection when a young student speaks his mind so clearly . . . it was a fine idea."

Elmer Davis remarked: "Your pupils seem to be charitable enough to think we are all good . . . tell them not to hesitate to use the harpoon if they feel like it."

Walter Winchell said that he was "happy to be included in such good company."

Fulton Lewis, Jr., wrote: ". . . a very good and commendable job . . . other teachers would do well to use it as a model."

Although this was mainly a unit in language arts, in order for it to be completed successfully the cooperative services of the library and art department were utilized. An audio aid, the tape recorder, was instrumental in providing the commentators' voices at the time the class could hear them together; and through listening to each of the programs, approximately two hours of news was heard by the students—news that related to their social-studies work.

It is hoped that when this unit is presented again it will be greatly improved on the basis of original class experience and suggestions given by the commentators themselves.

EDITOR'S NOTE

A nine-week unit on radio news commentators was a feature of Mr. Wayne's eighth-grade language-arts classes in the Herbert C. Hoover School, Merced, Cal. Eight noted commentators were selected for study and analysis on rating sheets by each student. From the booklets produced by the individual pupils during the unit, one was selected to be sent with a letter of explanation to each commentator involved. Mr. Wayne offers excerpts of some of the replies the classes received.

DISCIPLINE *A veteran discusses methods and "know how"* in the STUDY HALL

By
EDITH H. BROBERG

ONE MUST OF necessity speak with some reservation about a study hall that operates successfully, because the predominating factor is human nature and that is not an absolute. The claims made here, therefore, are not without variance, but sufficient years have proved that the study halls in John Rogers High School are operated successfully and are an asset to the school.

Perhaps the medium through which the best results have been reached is time. The same policies carried out consistently over a period of years have developed into patterns that are expected and accepted without much ado. A great part of the success of our study halls I attribute to the fact that one supervisor has been in charge of the same study hall every period in the day for several years. To change supervisors often is not fair either to students or to teachers, because that means numerous personality adjustments and too many varying policies. Frequent changes result in continuous confusion and so do not allow much time for concentration on study. I have supervised the same study hall for twelve years.

The first and most important thing I had to learn as a study-hall supervisor is that as goes the teacher, so goes the study hall. The relation is so convincing that I must conclude that success depends largely on me. To paraphrase Ralph Waldo Emerson, what I do speaks so loud they can't hear what I say. So I must daily strive to act as I want the students to act—trying to show them how to live in a small community

with purpose, with dignity, with honesty and good will.

I must endeavor to be industrious, patient, and without guile. These are the attributes and attitudes one hopes to bring out in high-school students, but I have lost before I start unless by example I at least try to demonstrate what we're aiming at. This is a large order for a supervisor but it is the key to success. For instance, if I shout at a student he usually shouts back in the same pitch; if I am angry almost always the student loses his temper too. A discussion of how many times I have failed to set a right example would be of no help to the reader, but it is important that I chalk up more successes and fewer failures as time passes.

We have established the custom of beginning our routine study-hall life on the day school opens. There is, then, no time to settle into wrong habits that must be corrected eventually. Each one in his seat, occupied with his own business, is our goal as soon as possible at the beginning of each period. It may not be a perfect result at the start, but the effort is in the right direction, with most students falling into line and liking it.

There are, however, a few who rebel against regulation in any form if it applies to them. We have with us always a few who never want to study, some who seem never to have books—and these few disturb others who have the best intentions. The habit of at least bringing a book to study hall can often be established by reminding pupils again and again about this practice. If, finally, this does not work, I try to have a

conference with such students and the principal, so that together we clear up the matter and plan for cooperation. Usually this gets results in some measure at least.

Once some kind of work is brought daily, chances are that it will be pursued to some extent. A library book suffices, the point being that all students participate in the general scheme of having some work with them.

We try to learn the names of these young people as soon as possible, not only because it saves time but is complimentary to the ego. Looking another straight in the eye and calling him by name is a gesture universally appreciated, youth not excepted. It is definitely an asset that is effective in matters of discipline. In any case, personal recognition may easily grow into a bond of friendship and understanding.

The problems common to administration of study halls must be solved particularly and individually by each supervisor because situations, conditions, and student bodies vary greatly. The size of the school, the programing, the principals and their policies differ in many points, so that the techniques of each supervisor are consequently unique. However, methods that have worked anywhere may with some alteration be adapted to specific needs in other study halls.

Most of the trouble in study halls can be classified under the general head of insubordination, and the treatment of such infractions depends on how serious they are. Sometimes a whispered direction at the child's desk is enough. Perhaps I ask the offender to step into the corridor until I can come to talk with him. This device has a dual effectiveness. By the time I get there both the culprit and I have had time to "cool off" a bit, and what may have seemed a major offense at the moment settles into its right perspective and often an agreement is reached that may eliminate further trouble from that source. Mutual understanding is always a far better disciplinary

measure than the iron hand. And pleasanter too!

We have proved to our entire satisfaction that the less commotion caused by disciplining, the more the concentration of the students on their work. As just suggested, a whispered direction, a quiet reprimand, or a conference in the hall works much better than loud commands that disturb everyone. Scenes in which the teacher and the offender are the chief actors result too often in the enthusiastic reaction of an audience that loves a good fight. It is a situation in which I definitely feel I lose face with the students.

In cases of extreme misbehavior I have found it wiser to settle the matter by giving the student a pass to the principal so that he may get things straightened out before returning. If necessary I confer with both of them in bringing about a final understanding.

We have set a standard of not talking in the study hall because after much investigation we found most of it unnecessary—often merely social chatter. Sometimes this can be stopped by permanently separating the talkers, who usually turn out to be pals. In such cases definite seats are assigned and a list of these kept so they can be checked occasionally. The newly assigned seat, along with the matter of discipline, is more clearly fixed in mind if the offenders sign a permanent seating list indicating the row and the number of the seat. A penalty is exacted

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mrs. Broberg for the past twelve years has been full-time supervisor of the same study hall, in John Rogers High School, Spokane, Wash. Most of us, with rather spotty records of study-hall service now and then, for a period or so a day, might by comparison be called amateurs, if not dilettantes. Anyway, the author wishes to share some of her "tricks of the trade."

if that seat is not taken as indicated throughout the remainder of the semester. We also discourage students from sitting together, until there is so little of it that we have no rules about it. Asking assignments of another is frowned upon because it is disturbing. It seems logical that each student should get his own assignment in class.

As every study-hall teacher knows, there are epidemics of disturbances that attack us occasionally. For no apparent reason suddenly yo-yos are everywhere. Perhaps the fad is eating watermelon seeds or strumming bobbie pins or shooting water pistols. Waves of enthusiasm for these amusements flow through our study halls and classrooms; then, with pressure applied, they disappear and we are quite ourselves again. Each epidemic is dealt with on the spot, with the certain knowledge that our principals will assist if necessary. Often such devices are destroyed on sight—and to locate them is sometimes next to impossible! However, in some cases this action is not wise and instead the problem is referred to the principal for solution.

Because here we have through the years taken quick and summary action on such epidemics, their frequency is diminishing. In my study hall I brook no comic books and have to date taken them on sight and relegated them to the wastebasket at my desk. Comic books, being under question as they are, pose a problem to be settled locally or individually, so my method has only the value of a suggestion.

If a student is idle day after day, I make an effort to understand his indolence by asking him to write his program for the entire day and the names of his teachers. Sometimes I confer with a teacher. I try to make the boy or girl feel that I am interested in his or her school work and not merely critical. Going into the matter rather thoroughly sometimes clears the student's own thinking about his obligation and may set him to work to a greater or less degree.

To inspire him to some action may be a new starting point that will lead to participation in class activities. It may be that the loan of a pen or pencil or a sheet of paper will supply the impetus needed. Suggestions for a book report or help in solving a problem may encourage some student who is bogged down, as it were.

In order to minimize the disturbance of continuous moving about, we issue passes out of the room as infrequently as we can. Inquiry into the reason for a trip to a locker may result in my providing temporarily whatever is needed, thus avoiding the need for a pass. If a pencil can be loaned, a piece of paper provided, or a plan worked out to do the errand between classes, the student will grow into the habit of taking care of such things before coming into the room.

In any study hall there are always minor disturbances that cannot be avoided, but their importance can be minimized if the supervisor sets an example of taking them in stride instead of showing an irritated reaction. If they are intentional, then they become matters of discipline.

Sometimes a student wants to argue the pros and cons of a decision in settling his behavior problem. If he persists, I ask him to come to me at the end of the day when there is more time to talk it over. Usually he will accept the decision, which has been fair (we hope), and so he does not appear after school. However, the fact that he has been given a chance to plead his case registers with him as a fair deal.

Tension in a study hall is a hindrance to the aims and purposes for which it exists. A feeling of freedom that does not grow into license, an atmosphere of busy-ness that results from individual occupation—these are the ultimate in the ideal study hour. I appreciate in such hours how much exuberant life, what irrepressible animal spirits, fun, and mischief are being held in control by these adolescents. For them it is a personal triumph—an experience in self-discipline that will pay dividends as broader

and more serious relationships develop in their lives. In order to relieve this restraint to some small extent we have established here the custom of using the last two minutes of each period for talking and relaxing. In this time each remains in his seat, as moving about causes too much confusion. It is a time when we get acquainted with one another in a neighborly sort of way.

Our study hall opens into the library and so relieves us of keeping reading material on hand. This, of course, is an ideal situation resulting from a planned study hall in our fairly new building. Two sets of encyclopedias and several dictionaries are, however, on the book shelves here and are available at all times. Too, there is always a current *World Almanac* on the supervisor's desk.

My years of experience in this business

have taught me that I learn something more about it continually. The designs, the schemes, and the methods used to get results are never static. Conditions and circumstances change and every student is a unique individual. I try to be unyielding in matters of principle and yet flexible and forgiving when the good of a child hangs in the balance. It takes a long time—and by that I mean years, perhaps—to create and sustain in a student body the feeling that a study hall is an important part of high-school life and that its efficacy depends on individual cooperation. In John Rogers High School the *esprit de corps* has grown to be very gratifying. The price a supervisor pays for its continuance is a full day's work every day and eternal vigilance. In a study hall molehills become mountains so quickly.



This One Has Baffled a Century of Teachers

We ought to know by now that facts alone will not solve our problems. And yet, it seems to me that the greatest error into which most of us as teachers fall, is in assuming that simply because something is learned, desirable behavior with respect to it follows. To put it another way, mere knowledge of a particular referent does not assure favorable behavior with respect to it. I'm using the word "referent" in this case to denote anything—an object, a person, a group of persons, an idea. Many of us know, for example, that eating certain foods is not good for us. We know that. We know it to be a fact. Yet many of us continue to eat these foods.

If education is concerned with producing desirable changes in behavior, then perhaps we should ask ourselves this question: "How do you get people to want to do the things you want them to do?" How is acceptance of an idea or an attitude effected—acceptance, that is, with understanding?

I realize there are many teachers who sincerely believe that learning is taking place, whenever their pupils have discharged some routine assignment, or whenever they have managed to demonstrate a reasonable competency in some skill. In fact, I know a teacher who prides himself on the basis that he

"... makes 'em learn." Now, nobody ever made anyone else learn anything. You may think that learning is taking place under such circumstances, but actually it isn't. Strange, isn't it, that the same teacher who says, "I make 'em learn," turns right around and says, "I don't understand why my pupils forget so much."

The chances are that what the teacher thought was learning was so obnoxious to his pupils that they couldn't forget it fast enough—if, indeed, they ever did learn it. So once again, I pose the question: "How do you get people to want to do the things that you want them to do?" This is especially important to those of us who are charged with the responsibility of training children.

Assuming that we know what's desirable in the form of a curriculum or program of studies, and assuming that we know what's desirable in the way of attitudes and skills and behavior, how do we get our students to the point where they will feel that such things are important and desirable, and that they, too, will want to achieve them? It isn't an easy question to answer, nor is there any one answer that can be made applicable in all cases.—
E. EUGENE IRISH in *School Science and Mathematics*,

THE LOST DAY:

Instead of bringing religion into the schools
churches can improve their Sunday programs

By
CHARLES E. MORPHEW

SUNDAY, THE DAY traditionally given to religious education, is the lost day to American education.

Many well-informed people believe that the strength of the United States of America depends upon a high standard of morality and spiritual life. To those who are of this opinion, it is quite obvious that the public schools of this nation should make a conscious effort to transmit an understanding of the basic principles involved in living a good moral life based upon sound spiritual values.

It is the duty of the public schools to teach these basic principles; it is my belief that the public schools have been doing a remarkably good job of this in the past, and that they will continue to do an excellent job of it in the future.

A majority of the citizens of the United States are people of high moral standards who believe in living a life based upon sound religious principles. The instilling of this high moral and spiritual code into their lives has not been accomplished by denominational religious bodies as such. That this statement is true, can be verified by an examination of the active membership rolls of our churches. This examination will show that large numbers of our citizens are not active in church organizations. How have the citizens of this country learned to live a good life? They have learned it in the family, in the churches, and in the public schools. Most parents have a strong sense of responsibility for their children's physical, moral, and spiritual well-being. Therefore, our citizens be-

come morally and spiritually good in part by learning in the home from their parents and friends.

Certain critics of the public schools have said that because of the absence of a course of study labeled "religion" our public schools are "Godless." What do these critics believe religion to be? Do they hold that individuals become moral, religious people simply by listening to the reading of the Scriptures, too often with no explanation, or by being led in formal prayer, or by being indoctrinated in a particular denominational pattern? In some cases, no doubt, the experience of strong religious conversion has drastically altered the patterns of personal behavior as well as personal belief. In many other cases, however, no appreciable change in basic conduct can be attributed to formal religion.

There is good evidence to show that an individual becomes a moral, religious person by observing those who are moral and religious in their daily activities, and thereby is motivated with a desire to lead a similar life. Upon this basis the importance of our responsibilities to children in the schools, as well as in the family, is emphasized.

In our public schools a kind, considerate, intelligent, God-fearing teacher can lead children to believe in, and to practice living, a good life based upon religious principles. Is a public school "Godless" where such a teacher is living with children, teaching them by example to respect other people regardless of color, creed, or economic status? It seems more likely that a school

is "Godless" where a teacher is attempting to indoctrinate children in a particular creed and thereby setting these students apart from children with different religious concepts.

Is a school room "Godless" where children are taught to respect the wishes, rights, and property of other children? Is a school "Godless" in which children learn to be good, moral, unselfish citizens by observing the benefits, happiness, and security to be gained by living in friendship and cooperation with children both alike and unlike themselves?

Where is the child to learn about the Bible, God, prayer, and the other religious necessities? My answer is based upon personal experience and observation. No one in the public school taught me to know the beliefs, principles, and practices of my own denomination—but I know them. Where did I learn them? I learned them through the efforts of my family and of the clergymen and church school teachers of my own denomination. The books and other materials used in the church school were paid for by funds raised by the members of the denomination concerned with my religious education. This religious education has been an important and vital part of my total education, and it has not been neglected.

Traditionally the churches have had one day a week set aside to be used as they see fit. On this day an instructional program of high quality should be offered to the children of all churches. If the church school program is a good one, attendance will not be neglected. If the attendance is low, the entire program, including teaching methods and materials used, should be reevaluated.

Perhaps competent, professionally trained teachers are needed in the church schools. These teachers could even be paid. A great many sincere public-school teachers, who are devout members of their religious sects, probably would not object to having their

salaries augmented in such a manner. An increasing number of churches train their own teachers, and many already believe that religious education is crucial enough to hire qualified teachers for this important job. The fact that many churches are dissatisfied with their own program of religious instruction is evidenced by their continued effort to have the public schools assume much of this responsibility.

Too often Sunday is the neglected day as far as religious education is concerned. Some denominational schools play their athletic games on this day. Possibly these games could be played during the school week, and Sunday could be used for religious education. If Sunday could be used for education in religious doctrines, perhaps the traditional school days could be devoted to other aspects of moral and spiritual education. Through skilled teachers in the church schools, such as are now found in our public schools, surely the whole spirit of ethical living could be exemplified and practiced without bringing denominational religion, as such, into our public schools. The great strength of the public schools lies in their "melting-pot" feature, where differences of creed and color are minimized instead of emphasized.

Sunday need not be a lost day to religious education. Moral and spiritual learning need not be the neglected phase of our education.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The problem of how to gather in non-churchgoers has led the churches to seek aid of the schools, and school time for religious instruction. Dr. Morpheu tells why he thinks such a plan would be ineffective, and why the churches have a better opportunity to achieve their aims by doing a little "curriculum revision" themselves, and by hiring competent teachers for their Sunday schools. He is a member of the faculty of Wisconsin State College, Whitewater, Wis.

SAVING RADIO PROGRAMS on TAPE

By HAROLD HAINFELD

ONCE A radio program goes "off the air," it is usually difficult to borrow and impossible to keep a transcription of it for use in the classroom. Yet there are some excellent programs worth saving for future school use.

Roosevelt School, located in the northeastern part of New Jersey, is within range of two stations that broadcast programs designed for in-school listening. WNYE-FM, the New York City Board of Education station, and WBGO-FM, the Newark, N.J., school station, transmit programs of value during school hours.

The use of our tape recorder has enabled us to start a recording library of valuable radio programs. If the program has enough merit for use in the classroom, it can be saved for future use on our tape recorder.

Having a program recorded on tape offers solutions to other problems in the use of radio in education. Audio-visual administrators advise previewing films before use. Likewise, by having the radio program recorded, the teacher can hear the program before using it in the classroom. If it fails to meet classroom needs, the tape can be easily erased, and it is available for another recording. A program may be broadcast by the New York or Newark station at one time of the year, and yet fit our curriculum needs for another. By recording broadcasts for future use, the best programs can be saved and used at the right time, as needed in the classroom.

During the past year we recorded series from WNYE and WBGO. Our experiment was with "Pioneers in Science" and "E Pluribus Unum." The lives of the scientists are studied in the junior-high science and

health classes. The "E Pluribus Unum" series dramatized some of the problems faced by the founders of our Constitution and aided in our social-studies unit.

We did not overlook making tape recordings from commercial radio stations in the evening to be brought to school. Most of these stations, in addition to transmitting on the AM wavelengths, also broadcast on static-free FM. We recorded from the FM band. It has a higher frequency response and almost no interference. "Cavalcade of America" (WJZ), dealing with American history, often with named Hollywood actors, and "Secret Missions" (WOR) with material on World War II, were recorded in the evening for in-school listening. With the program on tape, it is easy to edit and eliminate the commercial advertisements and announcements. Thus, a 30-minute broadcast can be made into a 23-minute tape recording, leaving plenty of time in the usual 45-minute class period for the teacher to introduce the program to his class and develop follow-up activities afterward.

[THE CLEARING HOUSE wrote to the Federal Communications Commission in Washington to inquire whether FCC regulations permit schools to make recordings of programs broadcast by educational radio stations and commercial radio stations, provided that the recordings are used for educational purposes within the classroom, and are not sold as a profit venture. We received the following reply from T. J. Slowie, secretary of the FCC:

["This Commission exercises no jurisdiction over the subject of your inquiry and there are no provisions with regard thereto

in either the Communications Act, as amended, or the Commission's Rules. The questions presented in your inquiry would have to be resolved in the light of local and state law of the jurisdiction involved. Of course, a number of broadcast programs will be protected by the originator under the Trade Mark or Copyright laws of the United States Government."

[It is common knowledge that numerous teachers and schools do make recordings for classroom use of radio programs from both educational and commercial stations. And we haven't heard of anyone's getting into trouble as a result. But we thought we'd present the facts.—F. E. L.]

There is another possibility for the radio-tape recorder combination that we have used. WNYE presents a science quiz wherein students from two junior or senior high schools in New York City try to answer questions on their science studies. Having the program on tape permits the teacher to let his students hear the question and stop the recorder before the answer is given. Thus the students in class can answer and discuss the question before the answer is given. This procedure would be impossible with just the radio.

In making tape recordings of radio programs, it is essential to have good equipment. This is not necessarily expensive. The Freed-Eismann "Educator" radio is used by many schools for AM and FM reception. It gives an ample frequency response—about 6,000 cycles. Don't impair the quality of the recording by using a tape recorded with less output. A recorder capable of higher frequency response is not needed for radio reproduction. There are many tape recorders that have the necessary sound qualities, priced at around two hundred dollars. The Freed-Eismann radio has an outlet to permit direct recording from it into the tape recorder, so any outside noise will not be reproduced on the tape.

Excellent help has been given our experiment by officials at WNYE and WBGO.

Advance program listings and content of broadcasts were forwarded to us. Administrative approval of our plan resulted in an increased budget for additional reels of tape this year.

The storage of tape reels is no problem. They are small and compact. The tape reel is approximately the size of 8mm. motion-picture film. Many photographic dealers have cans and containers for the home movie maker. This equipment can be used by schools to store their reels of radio programs on tape.

Schools, school systems, and county educational departments are building film and visual-aids libraries. Audio-visual and curriculum personnel should not overlook the possibilities of inexpensive audio libraries of valuable radio programs on tape.

Radio and recording equipment is usually less expensive than projection equipment and films. The combination of radio and tape recorder will permit the teacher to prehear programs. Building a library of radio programs on tape that meets curriculum needs is an important step in using these aids in teaching.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Roosevelt School, Union City, N.J., where Mr. Hainsfeld teaches science and social studies, has a library of tape recordings of radio programs that can be used in the classrooms for various subjects. Teachers of the school record the daytime programs of educational radio stations so that they may be used at the time their topics come up in a course rather than at the perhaps inappropriate time they are broadcast. The teachers also record evening programs of commercial radio stations for the same purpose. Educational stations usually will be glad to cooperate with a school in such a project. But commercial stations and producers of their programs may have a different attitude. See the statement from the Federal Communications Commission on this point in our editor's note on page 414 of this article.

STUDENT DAY:

A Memorable Event of the School Year

By LILLIAN HECTOR

STUDENT DAY as an out-growth of National Education Week started in the Narrowsburg Central School several years ago. For one day of National Education Week, students assume all the positions and responsibilities of the teachers.

The idea originated as a joint enterprise of the faculty and the student council. The young people thought it would be fun, and the faculty thought it would be good vocationally and democratically. At first the idea was confined to the Junior-Senior High School. In 1951, however, several pupils who had expressed an interest in teaching were given the opportunity to take over one of the grades for the day. The day was so successful that this plan was continued in 1952.

The plan works along these lines. The president of the student council automatically assumes the role of principal and chooses an office secretary for the day. Perhaps it is coincidence; more likely it is good sense on the part of the "principal," but the secretary has always been a girl who has shown her worth in the business department. The various classes elect their "teachers" for the day from members of the class. In a few instances the class "joker"

has wound up with the assignment, but usually the classes pick the better students. We have noted, too, that some of the "jokers" did very excellent work. They accepted the dare and threw it right back at the class. Teachers for special instruction, such as physical education, music, and the library, are assigned by the student council for the entire day. These instructors are picked because of special interest and/or ability in the subject.

Each class in the high school submits a list of boys and girls who wish to "instruct" in the grades, indicating those who are interested in teaching as a career. The student council goes over the list, giving preference to the career-minded students. Each grade is assigned two teachers for the day. One student instructs in the morning with the assistance of the other. In the afternoon the roles are reversed.

About a week before the Student Day the "principal" has a meeting of all the "teachers" and briefs them. The "teachers" then see the regular teachers for help in preparing the plan for the day. When the big event rolls around, everyone is well prepared for all foreseeable incidents.

The "principal" has a real chore. He must inspect classes, handle any discipline cases, and manage the office. The latter phase may include letter writing, interviewing parents, or meeting salesmen. All "teachers" are expected to accept all the tasks of the regular teacher for that day, such as noon duty or playground duty.

It is somewhat amazing and very gratifying to note the eagerness and willingness the student teachers give to their tasks. The young people as a whole cooperate very

EDITOR'S NOTE

Student Day, on which pupils take over all faculty positions, is an annual feature of National Education Week in Narrowsburg, N.Y., Central School. Miss Hector, chairman of the school's public relations committee, explains the plan that has made this project one of the big occasions of the school year.

well, and there is a great deal of valuable instruction going on during Student Day. The grade children love the idea of the student teacher.

The plan does seem to promote a better understanding between teachers and pupils.

It gives those interested in teaching careers a chance to explore the field a little, and it gives the students a grand opportunity to feel that they are a part of the school. In fact, Student Day is one of the memorable events of the school year.



Each Economics Student Has a "Business" of His Own With Problems to Worry About

The widespread economic illiteracy prevalent today is very disturbing to all who are concerned with the preservation of our democratic institutions. Obviously, courses in economics have left little mark on the average high-school graduate.

The only explanation that can be offered for the ineffectiveness of our teaching is that the subject of economics has not been made meaningful to our students. In many schools it is still being taught in the logical arrangement of the average economics textbook. The methodology of many teachers still consists of the elucidation of a series of economic principles by well-chosen examples bolstered up by a certain number of pages assigned for home reading.

Our methods must be completely overhauled if we are to be more effective as economics teachers. Functionalism must become the basis of our teaching if we are to succeed in making the subject of economics meaningful to the voters of tomorrow.

As teachers we have failed to utilize properly the economic environment of the student. We have in large measure neglected the economic experiences of the student in his home, in his community, and in his after-school job. We must learn to channelize the experiences of students into the classroom in a systematic manner so that meaningful learning will result. One of the best ways of doing this is through the project method.

Several terms ago, during a discussion on business organization in a class in economics, a number of students told about the experiences of members of their families who were businessmen. So much interest was generated that some expressed the desire, as one student put it, "to start a make-believe business of my own and take up the problems as if

I were running a real business." In the ensuing discussion the idea caught fire.

Some students felt that they could obtain practical aid from the employers for whom they worked after school. Others indicated that they had access to practical information through their families and friends. The assignment that day consisted of further exploration of the topic by each student and the formulation of a list of suggestions as to procedure. The next day a general outline was developed by the class.

Committees were formed to make reports on such topics as "Individual proprietorship, partnership, or corporation"; "Chances of succeeding as a small businessman"; "What does it take to go into business?" The class drew up a calendar and formulated procedures. Each student was given a week to prepare a preliminary outline applied to the business he selected. These outlines were later returned with specific suggestions and were incorporated in the project as the table of contents.

Several periods were spent on methods of work. Sources of information were explored and it was decided to pool information by forming a class library. The school librarian was consulted and gave invaluable aid. Ways of utilizing students' talents in art and photography were discussed. At the end of that term, when the project booklets were submitted, most of the students felt that they had experienced a real-life situation.

Since that term I have used the project method to teach the units on production and exchange. By solving a practical business problem in a realistic manner, students gained concrete understanding of what would otherwise remain verbalistic, academic, and abstract.—HYMAN HIRSCH in *Social Education*.

CARE of PROPERTY:

Homeroom Discussion Program

By

ROBERT F. FERRIS and MARTIN H. MUNZ

THE LOSS of personal belongings seems to be a perennial problem, particularly on the junior-high-school level. Students "lose" purses, clothing, books, etc., often without any clear idea of where they saw them last.

Several causes seem to account for so many losses of property in the junior high school. We realize that children in early adolescence are characteristically irresponsible; they have a multitude of interests, many of which are short lived. They have not developed a strong sense of responsibility; hence, they are careless about caring for their belongings.

Furthermore, these young teen-agers usually acquire during the junior-high years more valuables in terms of clothing, as well as notebooks, pens, etc., than they have ever had. At the same time parents expect their growing children to assume greater responsibility than they are ready to accept. Consequently many of these expensive items are lost.

Children who come from less fortunate homes have the same desires for attractive jackets and other possessions as do students from the more affluent homes. It is usually not difficult for a child to steal if he really wants something badly.

Another major cause for the loss of property is that junior-high pupils tend to have confidence in their classmates in general. They oftentimes share their lockers with several friends because of the locker's proximity to the cafeteria; they may tell several friends the combinations to their lockers; they borrow and lend freely; they

forget to inquire about lost articles at the "Lost and Found" department.

In an effort to make our students more aware of their responsibilities for the care of property, we prepared an outline to be used in a homeroom discussion period. In our school of 1,125 pupils, we find that pupil problems and plans for activities can be handled most effectively through homeroom discussions, which take place as often as the need demands—usually every two or three weeks.

A copy of the following outline was given to each teacher to use as a basis for discussion:

CARE OF PROPERTY

Objectives:

1. To point out the economic value of caring for personal property.
2. To develop respect for the property rights of others.
3. To inculcate high moral standards concerning respect for the property of others.
4. To teach habits of conservation.

Suggested Activities:

I. Proper Use of One's Own Property

- A. Ask members of the class to give instances when their own carelessness with personal property resulted in loss to them. They may briefly describe the circumstances of losing pencils, papers, books, jewelry, clothing, purses, or billfolds. Questions for discussion:

1. Why is it unwise for several pupils to use the same locker?

2. Why should you lock your locker?

3. Where should we keep our wraps?

4. What use can we make of the office safe? (Leave money during the day.)

5. How many people know the combination to your gym locker? (Only you and the gym teacher should know.)

6. Why should you never re-set the combination lock?

7. Where in the gym should valuables be left?

B. Ask other members of the class to name ways in which economy may be practiced through the proper use and care of personal property. Questions for discussion:

1. How can you save money by having your clothes repaired, cleaned, or pressed? (Good grooming can be brought in here, also the effect it has on employers.)

2. Does careful handling of books pay off? Who pays for our school books?

3. Of what use is the Lost and Found Department? How is it operated?

II. Proper Use of Others' Property

A. Borrowing:

1. Do you always remember to return all borrowed paper, pencils, etc., and to return borrowed books in good condition?

2. Who is responsible when he borrows property from others?

3. Is it wise to lend one's property freely to anyone?

4. Why is it important to have a definite understanding when one loans property or money?

5. Decrease your wants and live within your allowance rather than impose upon your friends. Do you know of friendships that have been broken because of loans that were not paid?

B. Stealing:

1. Why is it wrong to steal?

2. Why is it important to report thefts to the teacher in charge immediately after the theft is discovered? (Answer: So that a search can be launched immediately among those who are potential suspects.)

3. Why is it unwise for a person to allow himself to steal even once?

4. How can stealing become a habit?

5. Can a habitual thief get by all the time?

6. You want other people to consider your property rights. Don't they in turn have a right to expect the same consideration from you?

C. Found Articles:

1. What should we do with articles that we find?

2. Should we expect rewards?

D. Public Property:

1. How does marking on walls or bulletin boards affect the standing of the school in the community?

2. Have taxpayers a right to do as they please with public property, such as desks, books, buildings, supplies, shop and gym equipment?

3. What can we do to insure having good equipment and supplies?

EDITOR'S NOTE

There seem to be good and sufficient reasons for Redlands, Cal., Junior High School's homeroom discussion program on the care of property, as the authors explain those reasons in terms of the nature of early adolescence and the unusual amount of property "lost, strayed, or stolen" at this level. Mr. Ferris is seventh-grade counselor and a mathematics teacher in the school, and Mr. Munz is principal.

Some Points in Summary:

1. Avoid borrowing personal property.
2. Always lock your property in your locker when you are not using it.
3. Always use your own locker.
4. If you have a combination lock; don't tell anyone else the combination.
5. Leave valuable jewelry, watches, fountain pens, etc., at home.
6. If you must bring a large amount of money to school, leave it in the office safe during the day.
7. Report any thefts to the teacher as soon as you discover the theft.
8. If you lose property, go to the Lost and Found room to inquire about it.
9. Turn in all valuables you find to the Lost and Found Department.

10. Form the habit of being honest at all times.

11. Always show respect for property, whether it belongs to you or belongs to others.

As a means of preparing the students for this homeroom discussion, an apt saying about the care of property was written on the blackboards in the classrooms each day during the week. For the benefit of the parents of our pupils, a newspaper story highlighting the substance of the discussion appeared in the local newspapers.

We realize that one homeroom program will not solve all of our problems concerning care of property. It is a beginning, however, and will be followed up from time to time as circumstances suggest.

* * *
Findings * *

CREDIT FOR EXPERIENCE: Do you favor giving full credit for previous teaching experience to a newly hired teacher? George Akerlund reports in *Michigan Education Journal* that he sent out this simple questionnaire calling for "yes" or "no" answers, and received responses from the following Michigan groups: teachers at random, 43; teachers who are officials in the Michigan Education Association, 29; board members in school systems with more than 100 teachers, 13; board members in smaller school systems, 12; superintendents in large school systems, 23; superintendents in small school systems, 12; county superintendents, 21; and also from 20 professors of school administration throughout the U.S.

Groups with the majorities favoring full credit for previous experience were: both teacher groups, 86%; superintendents in small systems, 57%; county

superintendents, 70%; and professors of school administration, 86%. Those with majorities *opposed* to full credit were: superintendents in large systems, 91%; board members in large systems, 83%; and board members in small systems, 84%.

Comments accompanying respondents' answers showed that in Michigan systems, there is a wide range of practices on credit for experience. In some systems, full credit is given automatically, while in some the amount of credit depends on the circumstances. Other practices include half credit for all years; full credit for a certain number of years and half credit for certain additional years; and various other ways of reckoning credit.

TELEVISION COSTS: The Federal Communications Commission has been holding television channels in some 240 communities for the use of school systems and colleges that can finance educational TV stations. The channels were reserved in April 1952, but will be thrown open to commercial use after June 30, 1953. Educators would give their right arms for the TV channels, but the requirement is money. According to the FCC, says *California Journal of Secondary Education*, the cost of building an educational TV station is \$300,000, and yearly operating costs are another \$200,000.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Good, bad, indifferent or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of methods used, degree of accuracy or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.

High Standards Call for a **HOMEWORK PROGRAM**

By JOHN E. CORBALLY, JR.

IF YOU, as a modern educator, have your eyes peeled and your ears cleaned so that current trends in popular thought do not escape your notice, you have undoubtedly detected a faint roar concerning the standards in the schools of today. They are, according to a printed and spoken avalanche, so low that the modern child is lucky if he realizes that a dictionary is usable for any purpose other than holding down papers and so poor that the businessman shudders each time that he contemplates hiring a high-school graduate to do any more than sweep a floor.

On the other hand, let a teacher assign thirty minutes of homework two days running and another trend in popular thought becomes evident—at least to that teacher and his principal. The idea seems to be that school should be like a defense plant—who ever heard of a Boeing employee taking a B-29 home for night-time work? Not only is homework considered burdensome to a growing child; it also seems to indicate the presence of an inefficient school which is not able to accomplish its job in the hours allotted to it.

The sad thing about all of this is that high standards of accomplishment in a school will almost certainly require the establishment of a definite homework program for the students in that school. If homework is bad, then the establishment of these high standards must also be unhealthy because they will result in the need for homework.

Is it, however, an unfair conclusion to state that, for a teen-ager in high school, the gaining of an education is the most important job which can be undertaken?

Should not school be more important than a part-time job or than the right to spend an hour or two in the local soda-pop dispensary each day or than doing any of the wide variety of things which homework is supposed to hinder or halt? Many believe that the answers to these questions must favor homework, and yet defenders of the practice of giving regular and difficult out-of-school tasks are all too few or, at least, all too silent.

Homework does have definite educational advantages which can be summarized quite briefly. First, it requires a student to develop the techniques of organizing his own time so that he can both complete his school work and engage in other activities which interest him. Most secondary-school students have at least two subjects which do not require a great deal of home study, if any. These include such curricular offerings as physical education, certain shop classes, chorus or glee club, commercial courses such as typing or business machines where the student cannot be required to own the equipment needed to complete the work, and possibly such courses as journalism or driver training, where most of the work is done in the classroom.

If each student is assumed to have four "homework" classes, a half-hour assignment from each would total only two hours out-of-class time. If the school has study halls in the schedule, at least a third of this work could be completed during this period. Consequently, if the student develops techniques of organization, assignments such as this would be neither burdensome nor unreasonable.

Second, homework has a tendency to

bring school into the home. Parents have a chance to see textbooks, to gain an idea, however sketchy, of the courses of study, and to work with their children in the pursuit of education. If books and school itself are left in the lockers when children head for home in the evening, many parents are completely unaware of the courses which their children are taking. School becomes an isolated experience that is of little or no importance to parents or children except during the actual school day.

Third, homework develops the idea that the gaining of an education is a full-time job. For the largest percentage of our population, graduation from high school represents the complete termination of formal education. Consequently this period of schooling should be utilized to the fullest extent. Without adequate homework, courses of study must be shortened and the learning which the average student can gain during the school periods becomes the maximum assignment for all. It takes time to learn, and unless some out-of-school time is used, the pupil and his society never realize the highest possible gains from secondary-school education. If formal education is worth anything at all, it is worthy of more time on the part of the student than he puts in during school hours.

As a fourth advantage of homework, one must consider the flexibility which it offers to a course of study. Teachers can spend the class period laying careful groundwork and then utilize well-planned homework assignments to allow for any and every individual difference which might arise in a given group. The treatment of individual differences in the classroom can be and is being done, but the methods used in this procedure are difficult and often discriminate against the better students. The use of homework as the main agent in the treatment of individual differences is both possible and relatively easy.

Other advantages could be cited. These include the use of homework for diagnostic

purposes, the use of homework in developing an appreciation of and ability to use community resources, and the use of homework as a means of enlarging the scope of the curriculum.

Naturally, homework for homework's sake is not good. And, just as naturally, any critic of homework can point out examples of bad practices in the assignment of homework. However, when one finds a bad egg in a dozen, he does not throw out the other eleven on the automatic assumption that they are bad also. For every bad practice in the use of homework, many good practices can be found.

As with all teaching methods, the use of the out-of-school assignment requires planning by the teacher, careful presentation by the teacher, and wise utilization of the product. There will always be charges made against homework by educators and lay citizens, but it is almost inescapable that the dropping of homework and the lowering of standards of educational achievement will go hand in hand. Children have plenty of time to play and too little time to learn. It seems obvious that the case for homework is a strong one that cannot be ignored.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Corbally writes that he isn't certain whether homework is a live issue nationally now, but that it is very much alive—and kicking—in Stanwood, Wash., where he is principal of Twin City High School. In fact, he wrote this piece to soothe his feelings by stating the case for homework, after an encounter with an irate parent who thought his boy was "worked too hard." Our information seems to be that homework is a fairly live issue around the country, because some teachers believe in it and some don't, while some parents don't and some do. On our more pessimistic days we sometimes think that the matter will be a kicking issue as long as there are parents and schools.

Therapeutic Dramatics *for* DELINQUENT BOYS

By

GENEVIEVE R. DOWNS and ALLAN M. PITKANEN

CAN DELINQUENT boys be touched by noble themes and noble characters in plays? This question has been answered in the affirmative by our experiences with therapeutic dramatics.

This activity, which places primary emphasis on character-building, is used in segregated classes of delinquent and slow-learning boys to change the undesirable personality patterns that have brought many of them into their unhappy situations. As developed through some years of play research and experimentation, this drama-therapy emphasizes the premise that a personality change will be effected in a delinquent youngster if he is cast in a role which is a counterpart of himself.

From our observations, we consider this particular use of dramatics definitely a concomitant factor in behavior improvement. Studying the "good" character he is to enact will influence the actor's thinking; the words he memorizes will, in turn, become his very own. Acting the role of this completely different character will provide an entirely new experience of life, will give him inspiration to live after his model. Liars will find themselves remembering lines that cry out against falsehood and that adhere to a love of truth. Boys deep in obscenity will gradually see sense to the meaning of living "sweet lives in purest chastity"! The bully will undergo a transformation as he remembers "riding abroad redressing human wrongs," just as the rough-neck, the rowdy, the playboy, will see a better life in the heroic characters they are led to portray.

When certain behavior problems are revealed, or when some behavior characteristics appear crying for attention, the English class embarks on a session in dramatics. Short one-act plays, or condensed versions of longer plays, or excerpts, are rehearsed for either classroom or assembly performance. Even though the project is generally considered entertainment or a change of routine by the class, the underlying purpose is strictly remedial. The class or the cast chosen often works hard just to redeem one of its members. If the deviate in question is aware of the process of therapeutics, and senses his own problem, the work involved is made even more effective and enjoyable.

Success often hangs on a bare thread, as the director carefully, patiently, and subtly works up proper enthusiasm for acting while his "actors" ponder, even cynically, the value of memorizing lines of some masterpiece in dramatics they either do not comprehend at first glance or find rather silly or sissy-stuff. Motivation of the most skillful kind must be created in advance to get the spirit required. The director must have words of honey and purpose, nerves of steel, the patience and endurance of the gods, to accomplish the desired therapeutic effect—and it can be done!

In this article only four types of deviates and the therapy used will be discussed. These are the cynically disloyal, the juvenile drunkard, the habitual liar, and the "moocher."

A striking example of disloyalty and its consequences is often remedial to a youngster showing indifference to his country and

flag, who contemptuously belittles American virtues, history, and folklore. He might be the type who declares loudly that all school boys are sick of the "Gettysburg Address." When he harangues thusly, or against his school, his teachers, or even against his parents, the time is ripe to introduce him to the character of Philip Nolan in *The Man Without a Country*.

It is not necessary to sermonize or to pep-talk him into an interest in dramatics. The time to say, "How about reading this play I've got here? Look over that Philip Nolan part. Maybe we ought to put on this play to get a little change in our classroom routine. You might be just the guy for this part." is the moment he appears receptive to some understanding of his personality problem.

The roles of the Judge, Danforth, and Ingham in this drama should be given to similarly mouthy and cynical boys. Acting out his scorn for Nolan's treason will remind the Judge of his own laxness and should change his lack of patriotic feeling to a healthier loyalty. These roles must be played with the same genuine sincerity as that of an awakened Philip Nolan. By constant repetition the lines must be learned letter perfect to make them sound genuine. To get the boys truly enthusiastic about the project is the master stroke of teaching, but once this sincerity of effort becomes apparent, the therapy has begun.

The Zone Police by Richard Harding Davis is our standard production in the redemption of the juvenile drunkard. No one can go unaffected who lives mentally for a number of weeks the personality of Major Aintree or Lieutenant Standish. The miserable role of the Major will bring about a disgust for drunkenness in the mind of the actor. The remedial possibilities will be greater in the role of Standish, however, because of his passionate indignation against the disgraceful Major Aintree, who "has made drunkards of a whole battalion . . . taught boys who looked up

to him to make swine of themselves." Memorizing Standish's scorn of inebriates is bound to make a tremendous impression on the boy actor's daily thinking. The spoken lines, heard over and over in rehearsal, become imbedded deep in the subconscious, and can develop a strong antipathy toward intemperate living in all the cast.

In this play the director must approach the drunkard role cautiously. He must not allow it to be comic, to produce laughter. Such strong sympathy and admiration for Lieutenant Standish must be engendered before the entrance of the intoxicated Aintree that the Major is looked upon with loathing as he wavers about. Almost hypnotically, the director must keep emphasizing the idea behind Standish's key lines: "Before I came here he was the one man I wanted to meet. But not after I found he was disgracing my father's old regiment, and setting an example to the men that keeps them in the hospitals, and the cells. Aintree knows you can't dissipate on the Isthmus. You've got to live clean. If you don't, you die. And it's because we Americans have lived clean that when the others are buried on Monkey Hill, our people have kept alive—and built that Canal! Aintree's here now; staggering up the hill, hey? Maybe lying in the road—in uniform! He won't be in uniform long. Not if I can help it!"

The reading of *Tale of Two Cities* (in play form) and *The Masquerader*, by Guy Bates Post, also can strengthen the attitude of disgust for the drunkard's ways. Talking over the themes of these plays should clarify the tragedy brought on by excessive intemperance: Sidney Carton loses Lucy Manette, the only woman he ever loved, through drunkenness; the *Masquerader* by his sobriety fills so well, by proxy, the role of dignity and honor assigned officially to a drunkard diplomat that he remains permanently in that high position while the real man goes down to sodden oblivion.

Liars are cast in *The King's Jewel*, by Henry Van Dyke, a dramatization which symbolizes truth as a star-sapphire. It would be ideal to have the whole cast composed of liars because much of the talk during rehearsal will center around truthfulness, the rarest of all good qualities to be found in delinquents, almost as rare as the star-sapphire itself!

Redemption of those liars who have reached the point of believing their own lies is difficult indeed, but if the actors can think somewhat rationally, it may be possible to remind them that life becomes dull for those who abandon the search for truth, beauty, and goodness. Studying the theme will introduce discussion of true values. It will bring forth the idea that "rough gems"—stone or human—can be polished into precious jewels, that truth, too, is precious, that there is only one truthful version, and only fools tell false accounts! The lines of the script should develop a distaste and scorn for alibis and a new respect for the straightforward story.

The "thug" type of liar should be cast as the King. Even though difficulties may arise in "selling" him his role, once he goes into it, a surprising transformation is possible. "Oh, I feel like a hypocrite. All the guys know I'm an awful liar! Put somebody in it who always tells the truth," has been a common exclamation of this type when first approached. He is not allowed to squirm out of his ordeal this way. Insist that even he, as a habitual liar, can change, that he need not go on forever telling falsehoods. "All the kids'll die laughing when I talk like the Man in Battered Armor!" He is to be persuaded that the "Man's" armor was battered because he had to suffer in order to keep his jewel, the truth; and that our "hero" should likewise bear up under his punishment—laughter—so as to come forth purified from his taint of lying!

The "moocher," the habitual "gimmeguy," the pathological parasite, can be shamed out of his pestiferous ways by a

EDITOR'S NOTE

The pupils in classes for delinquent, "problem," and slow-learning boys at Jacob A. Riis High School, Los Angeles, Cal., are being helped toward reformation by a program of therapeutic dramatics, the authors report. As examples, Miss Downs and Mr. Pitkanen explain four different kinds of anti-social behavior, and the play or scene that is prescribed for each kind, with the appropriate culprits taking the leading roles. Miss Downs is academic coordinator, and Mr. Pitkanen is chairman of the social-studies department, of the school.

good dose of Cyrano de Bergerac. Here he will find lines alive with an independence of spirit he never dreamed existed. Cyrano is good medicine for the apple-polisher, the boot-licker, the yes-man, too. Cyrano's witty boastings of developing magnificent hatreds will cool the "moocher's" inordinate eagerness to acquire popularity at any price. His experience with this great soul will make him more discriminating. He will sense surely the higher type of person to emulate, for often this "moocher" type, groveling in the attention of others, is not as feeble-minded as he makes himself appear. Concentration on such passages as the following will create for him a "white plume of honor" and leave groveling to lesser souls:

What would you have me do?
Seek for the patronage of some great man,
And like a creeping vine on a tall tree
Crawl upward, where I cannot stand alone?
No, thank you! . . . Be a buffoon
In the vile hope of teasing out a smile
On some cold face? No, thank you! Eat a toad
For breakfast every morning? Make my knees
Callous and cultivate a supple spine—
Wear out my belly groveling in the dust?
. . . Scratch the back of any swine
That roots up gold for me? . . . No, thank you!

There are plays illustrating almost every human frailty. All one needs to do to fit them into individual remedial situations is to

pick and condense passages to form the proper psychological medicine for the patient. The enactment should be made as simple in staging and costuming as possible; the story as brief as needs be to emphasize the point desired and to maintain proper interest in its presentation.

These behavior types mentioned certainly are not the only ones treated this way. The snobbish, the selfish, the girl-hater, the Scrooge type, the uninterested, the shy, and others can all be helped to break their binding behavior maladjustments. Factual stories of the world's great men can also inspire and change for the better those who waver or those who are bound to ignorant behavior merely by their prejudices.

The story of Pasteur can dispel fear of vaccination or of doctors. The Bishop's scene in *Les Misérables* can revitalize the commandment, "Thou shalt not steal." The study of the Vows of King Arthur from *Idylls of the King*, through choral reading, for instance, can give inspiration and a new faith to those untouched previously by any-

thing honorable. Drinkwater's *Abraham Lincoln* provides a great potential for good in these lines: "It is for us to set a great example, not to follow a wicked one"; "Stand by him while he is right and part with him when he goes wrong."

Too often in our schools we find youth neglected in their personal quandaries. They grope aimlessly through the complexities of textbooks and fall by the wayside into academic failure because in a critical time no one sensed their difficulties and offered the needed words of inspiration, of hope. There was no one to open a window for a view of the sky; no one to guide them to see that in the books they found so meaningless were also the remedies for mastery of themselves.

Through therapeutic dramatics, the use of that most subtle and powerful educational device—suggestion, the distorted emotions of the juvenile delinquent may be reorganized and his ideas of pleasure and adventure readjusted, without any conscious effort on his part except the feeling of "having lots of fun in a show"!



Set the High Schools Free

Why not solve this old, irritating problem of college admission and be done with it? It seems to me that the steps to be taken are neither too many nor too difficult.

First, the college must trust the high school. The college should say to the high school: "It is your responsibility to provide the best possible guidance and educational experience for each of your students. It is up to you to do this for each student whether or not he is going to college. The college will help you in every way it can, but it won't tell you what or how you should teach. You have a great and difficult task in providing for the needs of all your students. The college will no longer handicap you by prescribing subjects and courses for the students coming to college."

The college can well afford to place its confidence in the high school.

The high-school principals, counselors, and teach-

ers are graduates of the colleges. They succeeded in college. They know from their own experience what college is and what it takes to make good as a college student. They are getting college-bound students ready to travel a road which they have already trod successfully themselves. Why not leave the responsibility to them? That surely is where it belongs.

The college can safely trust the high school to decide what pattern of subjects and courses is best for each student. The high school knows the student and his parents; the college does not.

The assumption that success in the liberal-arts college depends upon the study of certain prescribed subjects in high school is no longer tenable. There is little evidence to support that assumption. There is overwhelming evidence against it.—WILFORD M. AIKIN in *California Journal of Secondary Education*.

Colgate PRECEPTORS Help Freshmen to Adjust

By
HOWARD L. JONES

AT THE ANNUAL meeting of the New York State Association of Deans and Guidance Personnel, held in Elmira late in October, continuing concern was expressed about the failure of some students to make satisfactory first-year adjustments at college. Secondary-school guidance directors and college deans directed their attention to the fact that many students fall by the wayside during their freshman year, while many others fail to take the fullest possible advantage of their own growth potential.

Failures to succeed must, of course, be laid at many doorsteps. The student himself, his parents, his secondary-school advisers, the college admissions staff, and the college faculty all must assume partial responsibility for these drop-outs. But well-conceived and well-conducted advisory programs on the freshman college level can and do save many young people who would otherwise fail. While many such programs meet the first requirement—they are well conceived—they fall down in actual practice because faculty members are simply too busy to provide the necessary counseling assistance. Preceptorial Studies at Colgate University is succeeding to a marked degree in helping students make the difficult transition between secondary school and college.

Each year Colgate employs the half-time services of sixteen graduate students, who spend their other half-time periods working toward the Master of Arts degree. Each of these preceptors, as they are called, has chosen the teaching profession for his life work. He is assigned approximately twenty-five freshmen who are "his boys" throughout the year. He meets each student in indi-

vidual conference every other week and meets his entire contingent in frequent group sessions. His job, simply stated, is to help each student help himself to the fullest possible benefits from his college experience. It is impossible to describe the function of the preceptor in any rigid sense. With some students he is essentially an academic counselor, stressing library skills, study habits, and effective English expression. With others he is essentially a social counselor, trying to help the student make the difficult adjustments to a new and strange environment, to roommates, to fraternities, and to the many novel pressures which surround him.

Associated with each graduate preceptor is a regular member of the faculty who serves as the first referral agent with men who need help above and beyond that which the preceptor can provide. These two advisors meet regularly to discuss the men in their group and to plan ways and means of assisting student adjustment.

Preceptors conduct both reading and writing laboratories for men who show

EDITOR'S NOTE

Colgate University, Hamilton, N.Y., has a staff of graduate students in education who serve part-time as preceptors to freshmen. The preceptors, who offer academic and social counseling as needed, have reduced the first-year failure rate and have helped to guide the freshmen toward "the fullest possible benefits" from their college years. Dr. Jones is director of preceptorial studies.

weaknesses in these skills, and they have achieved notable success in helping students toward improvement. The intramural athletic program is built around these groups, so the preceptor has many opportunities to observe "his boys" in non-academic situations.

While it is obviously impossible to make a complete and reliable analysis of the effectiveness of the program, certain facts deserve to be reported. Average student grades have risen significantly since the beginning of this program in 1946—from 2.17 in 1946 to 2.32 in 1951. The number of men invited to withdraw from Colgate for poor academic records has declined from a percentage of .122 in 1946 to .027 in 1951. The number of students receiving failing grades in one or more subjects during the year has also been materially reduced.

Social and personal adjustment to the new college experiences is, of course, far more difficult to measure than academic achievement. From lengthy anonymous

opinion surveys conducted among both students and faculty we have concluded that the program is of real help in these respects.

Preceptorial Studies has its weaknesses, as does any advisory program. Some preceptors are less effective than others, just as some faculty members are less effective than others. There is the ever-present danger that these relatively inexperienced counselors, in the true clinical sense, will try to advise in areas for which they are not prepared. But, in the main, this program, in the author's opinion, is the finest advisory system currently in operation for reducing first-year college failures.

In addition it has one great benefit not heretofore mentioned. Sixteen prospective secondary-school and college teachers learn what education is in the finest sense of the word. They learn what "makes young men tick" by meeting with them regularly throughout the year and become, we are convinced, far better teachers because of this experience.



The Case for the Fall Delivery Yearbook

A wartime paper shortage and high printing prices planted the seed for a yearbook publishing idea that has blossomed into maturity as the "fall delivery" annual.

Many Texas schools have decided it is better to have their yearbooks delivered in September than in May. There has been no overwhelming switch to the later date, however, because it has disadvantages as well as advantages. . . .

Some sponsors found a solution to their problem in autumn delivery. This reduces the printing and binding costs.

Books to be delivered in September can be printed and bound during the summer months, usually slack periods in the commercial field. Printing firms are content with smaller profits on jobs that keep their workers busy during the normally slow summer. Summer printing also eliminates need for overtime labor.

Schools that switched to fall yearbook delivery soon found that it held some other advantages in addition to economy.

The September annual contains reports on the activities of the entire school year preceding its publication. There is no old material in the book, such as spring sports from the previous school year. It is also possible to include material dealing with graduation exercises, the climax of every graduate's public-school career.

Fall delivery enables the sponsor to spread the work of the staff over a full school year and makes it possible to keep interest high until the end of school.

This may not be important if the staff is composed mainly of seniors, since the last two months of school usually are crowded with parties and other senior class activities. Such activities may mean the seniors will accomplish little on the yearbook during those two months. Some sponsors counteract this by having the next year's staff take over at this point. This gives the succeeding staff some experience and usually one or two of the old student staff members can be relied upon for supervision.—ROLAND BING in *The Texas Outlook*.

SUMMER CLICHÉS:

A Principal's Pet Peeve

By
DONALD L. SIMON

INVARIABLY ABOUT the middle of May, a few weeks before the close of school, some one will ask me, "Well, what are you going to do this summer?" When I explain that I plan to stay on the job, I get this answer, "Why, I had no idea you worked during the summer."

I am principal of a high school enrolling 1,600 pupils and employing about 100 people—including teachers, clerks, custodians, and cafeteria workers. How anyone can imagine that I can walk out of the building on the last day of school in the spring and not come back until the opening day in the fall has always been a puzzle to me.

In the midst of preparing numerous reports in the middle of June, I take time out to attend the weekly luncheon meeting of my service club, only to hear, "My, it must be nice to have a three-month vacation. What do you do with yourself anyway?" That afternoon, checking the attendance records of 600 transfer pupils—an error in omitting one pupil would mean a loss of \$200 to the school city—I wonder what I would do if it were really true! The three-month vacation, I mean.

According to my contract with the school

city, I have a vacation during the month of July. During the years I have been in my present position, I have spent seven of those vacation periods teaching in a university, two in reserve officer training, one on a tour with the family, one on a state research project, and the others catching up on professional reading and cleaning the office desk and files.

Yet, during mid-summer these remarks are heard: "Are you enjoying your vacation?" "Getting plenty of sleep now?" "Here comes a man of leisure." At the market the check girl says, "I see the wife has you buying groceries these days." While I'm having a shoe shine, the proprietor calls, "It looks like some one is on vacation."

August is a busy month for a school principal, getting things in readiness for opening the new school year. Among a large teaching staff there always occur one or more resignations in late summer. Changes in the staff necessitate revisions in the class schedules. The summer maintenance work has to be checked. Pupils are constantly coming to the office to change their programs.

At last, school is about to open. Having worked the night before until a late hour, I stop at a gasoline filling station on the way to school. "Well, you'll have to go back to work next week," the attendant says with a smile. Or perhaps this year it is, "I suppose you'll be glad to get back to work again." How I would like to—!

The middle of September comes. Thank goodness, school is in session. Now, maybe I can get some rest. At least, my school patrons think I'm working again.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Simon is principal of Bloomington, Ind., Junior-Senior High School, and he has a complaint to air. Of course, most occupations have their afflictions. Opera singers get fat, and deep-sea divers get the bends. But what happens to a hard-working school principal in the summertime shouldn't happen even to a radio comedian.

THE TV WEEK

about equals the school week

By

WILLIAM A. ROSENBERG and JOHN DENICOLA

WITH THE advent of any new medium of communication comes an avalanche of criticism—good, bad, or indifferent. Some of this criticism is backed by authoritative facts and figures; some by nothing more than the mere exercise of talk.

It seems impossible to overemphasize the importance of the communication arts in people's living. All of these forms of communication, seeing movies, listening to the radio, reading, the spoken word, and television provide opportunities for relaxation, recreation, entertainment, escapism, and education. We, as teachers, must admit this. Yet, as teachers, we always sound the bell of doom when a new medium appears on the horizon.

When we condemn, we are admitting our own incompetence and failure in competing against these media. If we taught the art of thinking, discussing, and evaluating we would have very little fear concerning the tastes of our children. It is also a definite obligation of the family to set standards and values. Each new medium is a warning to us to remove the four walls of a classroom and seek education in the whole world about us.

EDITOR'S NOTE

A survey of more than 1,800 public-school pupils of Milford, Conn., shows that the young people spend about as much time each week with their eyes and ears trained upon television sets as they spend in the classroom the same week. Mr. Rosenberg and Mr. De-Nicola, who are principals of Milford public schools, offer details on the pupils' program preferences.

It was because of this disturbance brought on by television that an investigation into the TV habits of the pupils of the Milford, Conn., public school system has been made. What was gleaned from this survey was not catastrophic but certainly interesting and valuable.

In response to 2,113 questionnaires sent out inquiring into the home habits of young television fans, 9-18 years of age, 1,839 returns, or 87%, provided the basis for some conclusions. The questionnaire pointed up some questions relating to the amount of hours spent viewing, whether the individual family owned a set or watched a neighbor's, etc.

A complete listing of television programs was reviewed by the authors, and, in turn, divided into sections, such as musical programs, quiz programs, news programs, etc. In order for the child to indicate which program he listened to, he needed only to put a check alongside the name of the program. This made it very simple and direct. Every return was studied by the authors and the following results tabulated:

1. The average number of hours spent by pupils viewing TV was 3.54 hours per day per pupil. This is a little more than half the time they spend in school.
2. The much discussed "novelty factor" in television set ownership does exist.
3. There is a very definite correlation between the ages of children and the time spent viewing TV each week. The older the child, the less viewing he does.
4. Also there is a less conspicuous, but noticeable, correlation between sex and length of time spent in viewing TV:

- a. Boys (ages 9-12) spend 27.07 hrs. per week.
- b. Boys (ages 13-18) spend 16.74 hrs. per week.
- c. Girls (ages 9-12) spend 21.45 hrs. per week.
- d. Girls (ages 13-18) spend 20.10 hrs. per week.

5. It can be assumed from the figures that sooner or later televising has to vie with the outside interests of the adolescent and finally meets severe competition in the later teens. Television apparently must have top-notch programs (and probably several in one evening) to keep the older teen-agers home at night. It is also evident that television claims about as much of the student's time weekly as he spends in school.

6. From the lists of program preferences there is indicated definite differences in program preferences between sexes.

Preferences in Programs

Boys 9-12

- 1. Cowboy
- 2. Children's Programs*
- 3. Dramatic
- 4. Comedy
- 5. Variety
- 6. Quiz
- 7. News
- 8. Movie
- 9. Music
- 10. Religious
- 11. Sports

Girls 9-12

- 1. Dramatic
- 2. Variety
- 3. Children's Programs*
- 4. Cowboy
- 5. Comedy
- 6. Quiz
- 7. Movie
- 8. Music
- 9. Religious
- 10. News
- 11. Sports

Boys 13-18

- 1. Variety
- 2. Comedy
- 3. Dramatic
- 4. Movie
- 5. Cowboy
- 6. Quiz
- 7. Sports
- 8. Children's Programs*
- 9. News
- 10. Religious
- 11. Music

Girls 13-18

- 1. Dramatic
- 2. Variety
- 3. Comedy
- 4. Children's Programs*
- 5. Cowboy
- 6. Movie
- 7. Quiz
- 8. Music
- 9. Religious
- 10. News
- 11. Sports

* Examples: "Rootie Kazootie," "Howdy Doody," etc.

7. Data showed that poorer television habits and lower intelligence quotients, lower parental control and poorer school achievement tend to be found in the same child.

8. It would be a misinterpretation of data to hold that the television habits of a *given child* could not affect his school achievements.

It is the feeling of the writers that students have learned to live with television and the teachers must learn to work with it. Educators and others interested in the impact of television on young people will have to view the problem in a broad perspective.



Journalism Students Work on Mythical Newspaper in a Town They Created

Writing for either school or town paper cannot give the [journalism] student practice in writing all kinds of articles. To train the student for the broader field of journalism, my once-upon-a-time journalism class founded the city of Clear Creek and christened its paper "The Clear Creek Crier."

After discussion, the students diagramed the town. They knew exactly where the general store, barber-shop, soda fountain, garage, schoolhouse, church, beauty parlor, shops, post office, and barn for square dances were located. Next, the inhabitants were listed. The students' sense of humor had a chance for expression in the selection of the names. . . .

A committee was chosen to plan and motivate the town news. The whole group caught the spirit of

the project. Each reporter kept his mind keenly alert as to what happened to the inhabitants. Never once did the dead return in the next issue of the paper to have a sale of his worldly goods.

Many interesting news stories developed. There were numerous editorials about filling the hole in the road in front of the general store. A lawsuit developed over the goats that raided the hatshop. The class had fun and wrote all kinds of stories from front-page news to weddings, births, and obituaries. . . .

If you, a journalism teacher, want fun and a broader scope for news in your journalism class, found a town for your reporting.—MARY L. BOYLES in *The English Journal*.

Competitive Exhibits:

Schools enter industrial-arts projects in plan emphasizing educational values, not awards

By
E. MILTON GRASSELL

DURING THE more recent years on the general educational scene, the tendency has been to decrease competitive elements among students. Competitive project exhibits have, therefore, become less frequent.

Time consumption, various motives of commercial sponsors, undue burdens upon students and faculties, and the questionable amount of educational value in many cases are among the more justifiable reasons for discontinuing this particular experience.

Although aware of its common inherent weaknesses, a small group of industrial-arts teachers from seven counties in Oregon planned an inter-school project contest on the assumption that contests, if handled properly, have educational value. The results of this well planned and successful contest suggest that other areas, such as arts and crafts, home economics, etc., could profit by holding similar contests. A brief description of the contest sponsored by the Willamette Valley industrial-arts teachers follows.

Planning the contest. As in any other educational endeavor, the committee realized that proper and adequate planning is vital to successful contests. Continual emphasis upon the question, "What are the educational values?" proved to be the guiding light during the various stages of planning. Through careful planning the committee was able, also, to minimize wasted time and energy.

Paper work was held to a minimum. Only two form sheets were used. One consisted of

a questionnaire which was sent to each industrial-arts instructor to determine whether he wished to make a display and to estimate the number of projects in the various categories—such as woodwork, metalwork, etc.—that each exhibitor would bring. The second form consisted of brief, but necessary, information which accompanied each project to the exhibit.

Exhibiting the projects. Projects should be exhibited where they are easily seen. The school is seldom the best place. Usually, many downtown merchants are seriously interested in education and are eager to provide space for exhibits such as these. This particular exhibit was held in downtown Albany, Ore., in the main showroom of the Mercury-Lincoln dealer. In succeeding years, the exhibit will be rotated among other towns within the Willamette Valley.

Projects were exhibited in ten major divisions: General woodwork, wood turning, wrought metals, crafts, foundry and patternmaking, bench metal, electricity, sheetmetal, general technical drawing, and furniture making.

Prizes. Prizes present two problems. The first task is to obtain them, and the second problem is encountered in awarding the prizes. Speaking about the obtaining of prizes, the committee chairman said:

Our problem is not merely obtaining prizes. Our problem is to obtain prizes that have educational significance. All prizes should consist of items that will stimulate and inspire further interest in industrial arts, such as tools, materials, and equipment for home workshops—not free tickets to the local cinemas or free sodas at the corner drugstores.

Local merchants were informed early

about the desire for specific types of prizes that have educational significance. This was to avoid any possible embarrassing situations if "non-educational" gifts were offered. The local businessmen understood, cooperated, and contributed many valuable prizes. Druggists, theater managers, and other businessmen who did not handle merchandise that was appropriate actually went out of their way to purchase suitable prizes for the occasion. Some national manufacturers of industrial-arts equipment and materials contributed valuable prizes.

Judging the entries. Specialists in the field should judge the entries; thus, local artisans and industrial-arts professors from Oregon State College were asked to judge the entries. Basically, four main criteria were used to evaluate each project within each group; these included (1) the general appearance of the project, (2) the quality of workmanship, (3) the basic principles involved in construction, and (4) the finish. Constructive criticism was invited from the judges. This was important to both students and teachers.

Presenting the prizes. The committee, well aware that the presentation of prizes has led to serious objections to school contests, was very cautious and careful to assure success in this phase of the exhibit. An attempt was made to make each participant feel that he exhibited a fine project, whether he was or was not presented with a prize.

An attempt was made to replace the more traditional method of awarding first, second, and third prizes by giving honorable mentions instead, but the committee was unable to find a satisfactory method for awarding prizes on this basis. They expect to have this perplexing problem solved before next year's exhibit is held. The industrial-arts teachers believe that the presentation of prizes based upon honorable mention tends to make non-winners feel that their projects are not inferior.

Conclusions. Numerous advantages are derived from industrial-arts contests. Gen-

eral evidence in the schools which contributed to this exhibit indicated that it stimulated the students to take a renewed interest in their school work and a greater feeling of pride in their projects.

George Perry, industrial-arts instructor at Albany High School, Albany, Ore., lists several basic criteria that help to make exhibits successful. These criteria are general and apply to many fields other than industrial arts.

1. Exhibits should have ample educational value.
2. Adequate planning is essential.
3. The time and energy demands upon the faculties and students should not outweigh the purpose of the exhibit nor upset the school program. Undue burdens upon the staff and students do not contribute to a successful exhibit.
4. Prizes should be accepted only from merchants who are in worthy and generally accepted enterprises.
5. Prizes should consist of items that have educational significance—not free passes to the movies, cash, etc.
6. The contest should attempt to develop hobby or vocational interests and bring out latent talents.
7. Extreme tact should be exercised in awarding prizes.
8. Competent judges, of course, should be chosen.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The industrial-arts departments of seven Oregon counties have worked out an annual competitive project exhibit which Mr. Grassell says overcomes the objections that have been raised against such events, and demonstrates good educational values. He thinks that such exhibits might be successfully held for other departments of the high schools. The author, a former high-school industrial-arts teacher, is now working on his doctoral degree at Oregon State College, Corvallis, Ore.

While educational theory justifiably points out certain inherent weaknesses, the advantages of a properly carried out competitive project exhibit are numerous. Good

exhibits favorably inspire the students and also contribute directly to the success of the general educational programs of the various schools concerned.

That Most Sterling Character — the Classroom Teacher

By MARJORIE B. SCOTT

SOMEWHERE NEAR the middle of the social ladder, the top of the educational ladder, and the bottom of the economic ladder you find that peculiar specimen of humanity known best to citizens of from six to sixteen as a "Teacher."

This character is a gem of many facets. To parents he is a lifesaver at the end of August, a biased old grouch at the end of the first grade period, another name on the list of duty gifts at Christmas time, a tiresome bore when he calls about Junior's spring fever, and a necessary evil cluttering up the Commencement scene.

To school directors he is a tool especially prepared and tempered for the express purpose of helping them to keep the schools running. To the superintendent and principal he is a good disciplinarian but always democratic, prepared for weeks in advance but always resourceful in last-minute

schedule changes, ready to give special individual help but ever impartial, willing to stay late for extra work but never never tardy, easy to get along with but firm in his resolve.

To the PTA he is always good for a hurry-up "in place of" program, anxious to bring a cake or wash the dishes, and always ready to listen sympathetically to stories about sister's latest escapade. To the children from first grade through high school he is in turn: mother, father, policeman, nurse, doctor, adviser, confidante, friend, enemy, psychologist, arbiter, play director, librarian, laboratory technician, trip expediter, sports enthusiast, chaperone, Emily Post, Betty Betz, and Dorothy Dix—these roles to be assumed singly or simultaneously as the occasion demands.

And then for his own good: he must belong to all his professional organizations—local, state, national; he must take active part in community, church, political, and school activities; he must uphold his profession and protect it from all who would destroy it from within or without; and finally he must recruit future teachers who will be worthy to carry on in the tradition of all the fine men and women who, in spite of all discouragements, have originated, developed, and continue to perpetuate the finest system of education known to the modern world.

EDITOR'S NOTE

As if it weren't enough that the teacher must be many things to many people, Miss Scott reports, he also faces the necessity of being different things to the same person, depending upon the occasion. Presumably this situation helps to account for the long working day that teachers have reported in various surveys. Miss Scott is in the Elizabeth, Pa., Public Schools.

Events & Opinion

Edited by THE STAFF

EDUCATIONAL TV: What may be the first full-fledged educational television station in the country began telecasting daily programs in Los Angeles on February 2, says Gladwin Hill in the *New York Times*. Known as Channel 28 until its call letters are assigned, the station is the first, as far as is known, to take advantage of the Federal Communications Commission's order in the spring of 1952 "unfreezing" ultra-high-frequency bands temporarily reserved for educational telecasting.

It is believed that the only other television station operating in the educational field is WOI-TV of the University of Iowa at Ames, which was established before the FCC wavelength "freeze." However, this station has been doing commercial broadcasting because of the lack of any regular TV station in the area. In the meantime, says Mr. Hill, the pros and cons and feasibility of educational telecasting are still being discussed and argued in other states. In June the FCC reservation of channels for educational telecasting expires, and then the channels will be thrown open to commercial applicants.

"Channel 28" was established at a cost of about \$500,000 by the Allan Hancock Foundation, an educational and cultural philanthropy whose headquarters are at the University of Southern California at Los Angeles. Its plans call for 3 main types of telecasts—in-school programs and special features for school and college classrooms; adult-education programs of the kind now conducted in public-school buildings at night; and "community service" programs on such topics as news, health, and child care. The day-to-day operations of the station "will stem essentially from educational institutions—both public-school systems and colleges and universities." Broad policies are in the hands of an advisory council of about 25 members representing all phases of community life, including labor and religious groups, PTA's, and women's clubs.

Educators in other states are anxious to obtain some of the channels reserved for educational TV before the time limit throws them open to commercial use. But before you can get a channel you have to meet rigid requirements in proving that you can finance the venture—not that you feel positive you can get the money, but that you have it. When it is raining soup the schools are always issued a bountiful supply of forks.

CO-OP APARTMENTS: A 12-story co-operative

apartment building, erected by the Omaha Education Association as the answer to teachers' housing and rent troubles, is in operation this school year, says *Nebraska Education News*. Following 3 years of planning and 18 months of construction, the building was completed at a cost of \$833,000 with a 40-year FHA loan of \$595,200.

There are 71 apartments in 4 sizes—"small efficiency," "large efficiency," and one- and two-bedroom units. Omaha teachers "own" 85 per cent of the apartments, and business and professional women "own" 15 per cent of them, on 99-year leases. We are glad to learn that Josephine Frisbie, longtime contributor to *THE CLEARING HOUSE*, is president of the building corporation for the current year.

COUNCIL WEEK: A state-wide Student Council Week, complete with a proclamation by the Governor, was held recently in New Jersey, reports Clifford Roltsch in *School Activities*. The purposes were to publicize student councils and their work, and to help local councils to "promote a week of vigorous programs and activities."

BEARDED PAST: Commemorating the 100th anniversary of the New Jersey Education Association (1853-1953) the *New Jersey Educational Review* ran an article on the Association's history, suitably illustrated by photographs of early pedagogues equipped with flowing beards. We learn that during the first decade of the NJEA, men teachers (with or without beards) outnumbered women on public-school faculties two to one.

But the Civil War helped to change that. The men were getting drafted. So in 1861 State Superintendent W. F. Record (with beard) argued before the Legislature that more women teachers should be hired because (a) they were as good as men at teaching; and (b) you could get them cheaper. Apparently no one saw any contradiction between (a) and (b), so women teachers at \$200 a year began replacing men teachers at \$300. A year later, women teachers outnumbered the men in the State's schools.

IRON CURTAIN: *CLEARING HOUSE* readers may obtain free subscriptions to *News from Behind the Iron Curtain*, a monthly magazine published by National Committee for a Free Europe, Inc., 110 West 57th St., New York 19, N.Y., whose primary operation is Radio Free Europe. The magazine

presents "an authoritative report on conditions behind the Iron Curtain from the unique fund of information gathered in the regular course of the Committee's business."

Material in the magazine is organized under three main headings—Political, Economic, and Cultural. Special feature in the February issue is a 22-page section on "The Church in the Communist State." Another feature is an account of the new Communist anti-Semitic line.

QUESTION OF ETHICS: Many California teachers "are out selling books, encyclopedias, and other gimmicks to entice the parents of their students. Here it can be a question of buy or see the grades of your children go down, although the teachers who sell these books wouldn't admit this."

After this statement had appeared in a newspaper column syndicated from the State capital, Sacramento, the Ethics Commission of the California Teachers Association reminded teachers in CTA

Journal that such activities are a violation of the "Code of Ethics for California Teachers": "Not only is such a coercive practice unethical, but so is any effort by any teacher to sell books or other educational materials to parents of their own pupils."

On this matter the Code states that "To meet the responsibility to pupils, the teacher accepts no remuneration directly or indirectly for tutoring or equipping members of his own class."

VISION: "Save Your Vision Week" is a March event, so the American Optometric Association kindly sent us quite a selection of news items and statements concerning eyesight. We selected the following one to run: "Antiquated classrooms are largely responsible for eyesight problems" being three times as common in the eighth grade as in the first." But if you show this item to the taxpayers, a good many would merely rush off to buy stock in a spectacles factory.

Recently They Said:

Stalemate on Religion

There is now in some quarters a demand that the public schools teach religion. Whose religion? What creed or ritual? However much we may like the plan of teaching that religion common to all recognized religions in the United States, religious leaders have not produced such a text. Nor are they likely to do so. In both Protestant and Catholic bodies there are leaders who insist that truth cannot tolerate error. It seems to be "my truth, your error." These same leaders do not favor or practice interfaith understanding for this and other reasons.—HENRY H. HILL in *Journal of the Florida Educational Association*.

It Isn't So Simple

One of the great principles of the democratic credo is the separation of church and state. But, like most resounding fundamental generalities, the utterance of this phrase seldom serves to terminate a discussion. . . .

It is interesting that Jefferson's classic phrase—a wall of separation between church and state—is not the simple generalization that some would like it to mean. [Recent court cases in this area] indicate quite clearly that every [such] controversy will have to be decided on its merits as measured by its effect on the First and Fourteenth Amendments.—ISIDORE STARR in *Social Education*.

Book Parties

In my remedial "Reading Skills" course for retarded sophomores I have found Book Parties an interesting way to get everyone to contribute to the class his comments upon the books that each has read. Twice a month these parties are held in the classroom at regular class time. Cookies and cakes are served at a table arranged by a committee from the class. As we eat, we talk about our books. This form of reporting has proved more profitable, more conducive to reading, and certainly more interesting to all the students than formal oral book reports before the class.—HAZEL R. ANDERSON in *Illinois English Bulletin*.

Hag-Ridden by 100%

We are still hag-ridden by the old 100 per cent marking system. Teachers still try to determine whether a pupil deserves a grade of 86 or 90 when statistical study has shown that the probable error of marking is greater than the difference between 86 and 90. Experimental evidence shows that teachers are able to distinguish not more than five to seven levels of ability.

Even when we change, in marking, to the use of letters, we abuse the very idea behind the change by using the percentage system as a bridge to arrive at the letter grade. How ridiculous can we be?—*Wisconsin Journal of Education*.



Book Reviews



ROBERT G. FISK and EARL R. GABLER, *Review Editors*

Practical Applications of Democratic Administration, ed. by CLYDE M. CAMPBELL. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. 325 pages, \$3.

Here is one of the most valuable books which has been written on the subject of practical democratic administration. With a three-fold purpose in mind, Mr. Campbell, professor of education at Michigan State College, has edited and compiled the theories and suggestions of leaders in the fields of education, sociology, and psychology. His first purpose is to help prospective administrators see the significant role that education plays in the furtherance of desirable human relations; his second purpose is to give added meaning and new interpretations to the concept of education leadership in a free society; and his third purpose is to describe possible ways of putting educational programs into action in public-school settings.

The author and his associates have done exactly what these purposes indicate and they have come up with a book which has succeeded in presenting

the entire study of democratic leadership on a concrete and practical basis from which educators might work directly.

Part One, which offers a review of the theories upon which modern education is built, is presented in such a way as to help the reader to strengthen his philosophy and to keep his educational theories in balance.

Part Two, which is the core of the book, offers nine chapters of suggestions and practical applications concerning school and community development, the democratic approach in a new administrative position, operation of groups in the community, democratic in-service education, school and community cooperation, family education, and evaluation of the techniques of democratic administration.

Part Three, on the future of democratic administration, is made up of two poignant chapters which tie in the theory of chapter one and the practicality of chapter two and assist the reader to prepare for the future of democratic administration.

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New York, N.Y.

Basic Composition 2, by PHILIP BURNHAM.

Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1952.
490 pages, \$2.60.

Mr. Burnham has here attempted a difficult task with a high degree of success. In a composition text designed primarily for second-year high-school students (it is second in a series, giving primary emphasis to the paragraph as the first volume gave it to the sentence) he has combined the basic types of composition, both oral and written, sentence and paragraph development, outlining, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and usage into clear-cut and related units.

His text is to be commended for the exceptional clarity with which it shows the student the way in which grammar, punctuation, and the like contribute directly to more effective communication. For example, Unit 4 (Telling How Something Is

Made or Done) considers prepositions in its grammar sections, deals with idioms involving prepositions in its usage section, and tells how to gain sentence variety by beginning some sentences with prepositions in its "Improving Sentences" section.

The language is suited to the high-school level, yet makes its points briefly and clearly. I.e., under the study of adjectives the distinction between subjective and objective writing is made clear, without reference to those terms nor to connotation and denotation. A minor suggestion would be that adjectives, and the choice of precise and effective adjectives, might perhaps have been considered in connection with descriptive rather than narrative writing and speaking. Spelling lessons concentrate on such words as "to" and "too," which teachers of college composition hope—but usually in vain—all their students will know when they enter.

EARL HILTON

Northern Michigan College of Education
Marquette, Mich.

Basic Biology for High Schools (rev. ed.),
by CARROLL LANE FENTON and PAUL E.
KAMBLY. New York: The Macmillan Co.,
1953. 726 pages, \$3.84.

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To the present reviewer, however, it seems a pity that an excellent general plan should be marred by errors which a more critical editing could have corrected before publication. There would seem to be no justification, for example, for saying (p. 67), "When we analyze protoplasm, . . . we find that it always contains eleven elements," and then omitting nitrogen from the list. Or (p. 215), "Proteins build protoplasm," when the converse is true. Or (p. 275), "Our bodies grow largely by cell enlargement," when cell multiplication and differentiation are more significant. Or (p. 347), ". . . cells in the cochlea send sensations of hearing to the auditory nerve." No comment necessary.

Limitations of space will not permit several other citations that might be made. In conclusion, how-

ever, this reviewer fails to see why the circulatory system of plants should be illustrated and labeled in considerable detail, while in an illustration of the human circulatory system occupying three-fourths of a page only one structure, the heart, is named. Are the anatomy and physiology of a tree more "basic" than those of our own bodies?

On the same page the statement is made that "The power for all this work (i.e., of circulation) is provided when the muscles of the heart contract and relax." No power, of course, is "provided" when muscles relax; further, without the cooperation of arteries and body muscles, the heart alone could not maintain the circulation.

This book, then, with a good general plan and, in the main, skillful writing and illustration, could have been much better if someone with critical eyes and a somewhat skeptical disposition had gone through the manuscript with a sharp blue pencil.

ROBERT H. ADAMS
Miami Sr. High School
Miami, Fla.

Our Own Age (enlarged ed.), by CHARLES A. BEARD, JAMES HARVEY ROBINSON, and DONNAL V. SMITH. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1952. 878 pages, \$4.20.

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Phoenix Union High Schools
Phoenix, Ariz.

"English at Work" Series, by MARGARET M. BRYANT, M. L. HOWE, PHILIP R. JENKINS, and HELEN T. MUNN. New York: Charles Scribner & Sons, 1953. *Course One*, 520 pages, \$2.60; *Course Two*, 522 pages, \$2.60; *Course Three*, 518 pages, \$2.72; *Course Four*, 526 pages, \$2.72.

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EARL R. GARLER

The Administration of Public Education, by JOHN T. WAHLQUIST, WILLIAM E. ARNOLD, ROALD F. CAMPBELL, THEODORE L. RELLER, and LESTER B. SANDS. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1952. 610 pages, \$6.

This volume comes at a time when the crucial role of the public-school administrator is being thoroughly appraised. For, as the authors state, it is being recognized that the key person in American democracy is neither the businessman nor the politician. It is the public-school administrator who, in the long run, helps shape the ideals, attitudes, and beliefs of future generations.

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Particular notice should be given to the clear distinction the authors make between "school administration" and "educational administration." The latter, they say, is the process of guiding and directing child growth. Against this end all school personnel will be evaluated. This is in sharp contrast to the traditional concept of the administrator as an institution manager. "In sum, schoolkeeping will not suffice."

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WILLIAM McCANN
Chico State College
Chico, Cal.

The Relationship of Parental Authority Patterns to Teen-Age Adjustments (Bull. No. 538), by PAUL H. LANDIS and CAROL L. STONE. Pullman, Wash.: State College of Washington, 1952. 1 copy free, 15¢ each in quantities.

The hypothesis tested in this study was that teenagers reared in the democratic family have fewer serious personal adjustments and enjoy happier homes than those reared in authoritarian families. A total of 4,310 high-school seniors selected from one-half of the high schools of the State of Washington made up the sample. This was about one-third of the high-school seniors of the State. The authors suggest that the sample is representative of schools and pupils in all parts of the State and in all kinds of communities. The findings support the original hypothesis and further indicate that children reared in democratic families are better adjusted and live happier lives in the community as well.

The study further indicates that a large proportion of the families of high-school seniors in the State of Washington are democratic families. The highest proportion of democratic families was reported in small towns of less than 2,500 in population. A smaller proportion of farm families was democratic, but the proportion did not differ very much from that for city families. In all areas boys reported more democratic treatment in the family than did girls.

The secondary school obviously must gear itself to the pattern of social control established by the family. If the parent-child relationship in the family is a democratic one, then the teacher-child relationship must continue along in the same direction. If boys are treated more democratically in the home, than the patterns cannot be too radically different in the school.

This study gives the secondary-school teacher a great deal of guidance in establishing teacher-pupil relationships. A similar study in the schools and a comparison of teacher-pupil and parent-child relationships might be helpful in explaining some of our problems in control and direction of behavior in secondary schools. In addition, some of the indices used to describe democratic family patterns in

the home could be used to study the degree of democracy existing in secondary-school classrooms.

GEORGE BROWER
Chico State College
Chico, Cal.

Diagnosing Human Relations Needs, by HILDA TABA, ELIZABETH HALL BRADY, JOHN T. ROBINSON, and WILLIAM E. VICKERY, Center for Intergroup Education, University of Chicago. Washington: American Council on Education. 155 pages, paper bound, \$1.75.

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Sheridan Junior High School
Minneapolis, Minn.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Alcohol Education—a guidebook for teachers, by JOSEPH HIRSH. New York: Henry Schuman, Inc., 1952. 107 pages, \$2.50.

Careers in Commercial Art (rev. ed.), by J. I.

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BIEGELEISEN. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1952. 255 pages, \$4.

A Curriculum for Citizenship—a Total School Approach to Citizenship Education, by ARNOLD R. MEIER, FLORENCE DAMON CLEARY, ALICE M. DAVIS. (A Report of the Citizenship Education Study, sponsored by the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University). Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1952. 413 pages.

Education for All American Youth—A Further Look, prepared by the Commission. Washington 6, D.C.: Educational Policies Commission, National Education and American Association of School Administrators, 1952. 402 pages, paper bound, \$2.

Family Life Education in School and Community, by ELIZABETH McHOSSE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 182 pages, \$3.50.

Great Books—Panacea or What? by EDWARD A. FITZPATRICK. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1952. 116 pages, \$2.75.

How to Understand Propaganda, by ALFRED MCCLUNG LEE. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1952. 281 pages, \$4.

1952 Achievement Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies (Educational Records Bulletin #59), published by the Bureau. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1952. 105 pages, paper bound.

The Republic of the Schools—An Educational Program for Democracy, by VICTOR JELENKO. New York: Exposition Press, 1952. 224 pages, \$3.

Student Deferment and National Manpower Policy—A Statement of Policy by the National Manpower Council, with Facts and Issues Prepared by the Research Staff. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. 102 pages, \$2.

Subject Headings for Children's Materials, by ELOIS RUE and EFFIE LAPLANTE. Chicago: American Library Ass'n, 1952. 149 pages, \$4.

Their Future Is Our Business, by E. A. BARRELL, JR. Philadelphia: Dorrance & Co., 1952. 75 pages, \$1.50.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

Recreation Leadership, by WALTER L. STONE and CHARLES G. STONE. New York: The William-Frederick Press, 1952. 81 pages, \$2.

Shrines of the Republic—A Treasury of Fascinating Facts About the Nation's Capital, by EDWARD BOYKIN. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1953. 76 pages, \$1.

Studying the U.S.S.R., by LEONARD S. KENWORTHY. Brooklyn 10, N.Y.: Order from the Author at Brooklyn College. 39 pages, 50 cents.

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Just as a dog needs a flea to remind him he is nothing but a dog, a teacher requires a curriculum study program to keep before him the fact that there are some discomforts associated with teaching, and to restrain him from idling away every afternoon of the week.—*A. John Bartky*, p. 387.

During this week of pre-school meetings, each so-called "new" teacher is assigned the customary "buddy" teacher. In addition a helping teacher is assigned to the group of new teachers.—*Helen M. Jones*, p. 398.

I have great faith in the hard common sense of the teachers who are doing the supremely important job of Englishing the American youth. Any time I'll accept the judgment of a thousand experienced English teachers in preference to the findings in a half-baked investigation or in an investigation in which a teacher proves exactly what he set out to prove.—*J. C. Tressler*, p. 401.

The area to be covered in the unit was to be an analysis of eight [radio] commentators over a nine-week period.—*Robert Wayne*, p. 406.

As every study-hall teacher knows, there are epidemics of disturbances that attack us occasionally. For no apparent reason suddenly yo-yos are every-

where. Perhaps the fad is eating watermelon seeds or strumming bobbie pins or shooting water pistols.—*Edith H. Broberg*, p. 410.

Perhaps competent, professionally trained teachers are needed in the church schools. These teachers could even be paid. . . . The fact that many churches are dissatisfied with their own program of religious instruction is evidenced by their continued effort to have the public schools assume much of this responsibility.—*Charles E. Morphew*, p. 413.

The use of our tape recorder has enabled us to start a recording library of valuable radio programs. If the program has enough merit for use in the classroom, it can be saved for future use on our tape recorder.—*Harold Hainfeld*, p. 414.

In an effort to make our students more aware of their responsibilities for the care of property, we prepared an outline to be used in a homeroom discussion period.—*Ferris and Munz*, p. 418.

On the other hand, let a teacher assign thirty minutes of homework two days running and another trend in popular thought becomes evident—at least to that teacher and his principal. The idea seems to be that school should be like a defense plant—who ever heard of a Boeing employee taking B-29 home for night time work?—*John E. Corbally, Jr.*, p. 421.

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